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The Junior College's Full Scope of Function

EDITORIAL

ALTHOUGH hard to believe, it still sometimes happens that persons at work in the traditional college or university have remained unaware of the advent and growth of the junior college. When, on occasion, such persons first become cognizant of the junior-college movement, they are prone to take a condescending attitude toward the new institution. They may be willing to concede it a place, although a lowly one, in the family of educational institutions. Sometimes they propose a differentiation of function for the two groups of institutions—a differentiation which would relegate to the junior college only terminal students and reserve for the college or university all students seeking preparation in these two years for professional and advanced academic levels of education.

These persons, having been unaware of the junior college and its vigorous growth, are also ignorant

of the findings of investigations into the success of students who transfer from junior colleges to the colleges and universities. Many such investigations have been made, and almost all show that, on the average, junior-college students, after transfer, do as well as, or better (as measured by marks received) than, "native" students. While it may be contended that the comprehensive and fully definitive investigation in this area of the success of transfers is yet to be made, the cumulative evidence of the inquiries to date is favorable to the transfers and harbors no justification of the snobbery reflected in the differentiation of function proposed by the representatives of the college or university to whom the idea of the junior college is a novelty.

In a consideration of this issue of the preparatory function of the junior college, it is in point to re-

call the wide scope of services ascribed to this new school unit by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association in its report on *Education for All American Youth*. This report identifies five groups of students to be served.

1. The first group includes persons who wish to prepare for "various technical and semiprofessional occupations which require all the training that high schools can give and one or two years in addition. In this group, for example, are those who wish to become accountants, draftsmen, laboratory technicians, dietitians, assistants in doctors' and dentists' offices, and managers of various businesses."

2. A second group consists of persons who could profit from further training in the occupations for which high schools provide basic preparation, such as "machine shop, metal trades, retail selling, office management, automobile and airplane mechanics, and the various building trades." The report points out that further training for a student in this group would "extend his mastery of basic operations, enlarge his knowledge of related science and mathematics, secure more practical work experience, and advance his understanding of economic processes and industrial and labor relations."

3. The third group would be made up of the preparatory students who plan to enter professional training in universities or technical or liberal arts colleges.

4. The fourth group would be those who desire "to round out their general education before entering employment or becoming homemakers." For this

group "a wide range of elective courses in science, social studies, literature, languages, psychology, home economics, music, dramatics, art, and handicrafts" would be made available.

5. The report refers to "yet a fifth group, composed of adults and older youths, mostly employed, who no longer attend school full time, but wish to continue their education during their free hours. Their interests are wide and varied. Some spring from their daily work, some from their home life, some from their civic activities, some from their uses of leisure time, and some simply from the desire to 'keep on growing.'"

The conception of scope of function of junior colleges could hardly be made more comprehensive. The reader must have noted that the third group identified in the Commission's recommendation includes the students whom the uninformed representatives of colleges and universities would reserve for their own institutions. A differentiation of functions of the first two years of colleges and universities, on the one hand, and of junior colleges, on the other, is here apparent, but it is a differentiation stemming from the fact that the former are concerned only with the preparatory group, whereas the junior college will increasingly be called on to serve everyone who is likely to have any interest at all in education of the level represented, *including the preparatory student.*

LEONARD V. KOOS

Patterns of Organization in Community Service

HAROLD R. BOTTRELL

AN ORGANIZATIONAL pattern in community service brings together needs and opportunities for assistance and service in the community and related interests, abilities, and resources of college students. Attention is directed here to (1) the several patterns of organization found, (2) the basic elements of an effective pattern, and (3) implications for college policy and college-community relations.

The majority of the colleges from which data were obtained do not have a co-ordinated plan of student participation in community service. Rather, they have activities that may be viewed collectively as providing opportunities for student participation in community service. To make the distinction clear, these activities tend to be discrete, to be nominally directed by the college,

and to engage extra-class time and interests of students. On the other hand, a co-ordinated plan is viewed as a patterning of participation and services, having relations to educative experiences which are consciously formulated and pursued by the total instructional program of the college and having reasonable access to college resources and facilities and to staff and student time. This does not mean, necessarily, that a co-ordinated plan is curricularized, but it does mean that such a plan has functional articulation *within* the educational purposes and arrangements of the college. In present practice, activities in the field of community service tend to have casual relationships to the educational program of the college or to deal with relatively narrow ranges of ancillary objectives, whereas a co-ordinated plan or pattern tends to have direct relations with the educational program of the college and to deal with objectives that are considered primary and fundamental.

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Patterns of Organization

The patterns of organization described here range along a college-community continuum from the in-

dependent to the interactional. They are presented, in the main, in that order.

INFORMAL AND CASUAL.—The informal and casual plan is hardly a pattern at all but is noteworthy because (1) it is largely absence of pattern and organization and (2) it is the most prevalent in use. Participation is felt to be a good thing. By announcements and appeals, students are encouraged to do something about it. They are asked to volunteer. However, these activities fall in categories of lesser importance, and hence nothing more than suggestion is believed to be justified. Besides, if the student is really interested, it is assumed that he is perfectly capable of finding his own opportunity for service. Still further, especially when the student lives at home, students are expected to participate in various community activities as a matter of course and social habit. To direct such normal interests and activities is not considered a function of the college, though it hopes that they will be engaged in by its students.

SEASONAL OR SPECIAL-OCCASION AFFAIRS.—The college co-operates in special days and events and in traditional seasonal activities. As in the informal category, participation tends to be encouraged and rather loosely organized or to be organized with fanfares of publicity which resemble institutional advertising. Bond drives, tag days, baskets for the poor at Thanksgiving (an in-

defensible practice) are typical of this kind of endemic participation in the community. Participation in a community festival, a community clean-up day, or solicitation for the American Red Cross or the community chest represent this pattern at a higher level.

Participation occurs in response to a community request, not easily refused, for college co-operation. The college, in turn, brings persuasive pressure to bear on its students to forsake their normal endeavors briefly and to labor for the cause and, by all means, to meet their quota or fulfil the assignments that the community has "suggested." College prestige in the community appears to be of more concern than do the educative experiences that students might possibly obtain.

STUDENT GROUPS AND ORGANIZATIONS.—Community services rendered through student groups and organizations may range from nominal to real, may be a minor or a major purpose of a student group. The understanding, planning, and supervision involved exert a determining influence on the type and the level of community-service participation undertaken. In many instances, student groups, clubs, and organizations desire service functions and opportunities but do not have adequate encouragement or help in developing an organizational pattern that makes possible direction of effort and acceptable

achievement. At its lowest level of organization, community service by such groups may be much like those described above; at its higher levels of organization and operation, it may be more like those described in the section dealing with "Project Groups."

PROJECT GROUPS.—Community-service efforts using the medium of project groups¹ tend to have organizational structure, tested group processes, trained supervision, and co-operative arrangements with community agencies. Here, too, the range may be from informal to formal, but generally the pattern has basic features characterized by continuity in functions, time, and personnel.

As a rule, the group is organized around the project, and services are provided to the community through the project; that is, the services tend to be the primary fact and the students to be the operating resource. The roles and functions of the participants tend to be clear and manageable, and the recognition of work and learning outcomes correspondingly direct and specific. Opportunities for student leadership and self-direction under guidance are more widely and responsibly available. In total, and at their best, group projects bring the college and the community func-

tionally together and afford the participating student criticized experience in the interaction occurring between education and life.

CLASSROOM-LABORATORY PROJECTS.—The essential features indicated for project groups apply to classroom-laboratory projects. Again there may be a range in the type and the level of community-service activities undertaken. Such projects are most often found in social-studies and in education classes. Music, speech, and dramatics are sometimes involved in projects of this type, though their primary feature tends to be entertainment and entertainment experience. Work experience, as conducted in the field of distributive education and related fields, is not included in the definition of community service employed in this study.

Classroom-laboratory projects tend to have two chief functions, primarily student oriented: (1) They are designed to illustrate and make more vivid the subject field through observation and application. (2) They incorporate off-campus project work as an integral element in the learning processes of the course. The first may be illustrated by the use of tours to look at, or to study, the community; the second, by a psychology class that organized and operated a community nursery school.

The two following patterns are different from those preceding and

¹ See Harold R. Bottrell, "Social Cement for Group Unity," *Educational Leadership*, IV (February, 1947), 298-303, for more extensive and detailed treatment of group projects in community service.

are in limited use. Both deal with service by individual students.

VOLUNTEER SERVICE CENTER.—An official center for handling requests for service and referring and assigning them to individual students is provided through an office or a faculty member. This pattern calls for effective co-ordination and planning if the quality of the service is to be protected.

GROUP WORK.—This pattern extends the one for volunteer service in that it tends to be directly related to classroom work and has careful field supervision. Its object is service through work with community agencies and groups, generally youth-serving agencies and youth groups. Also, it generally has a vocational emphasis. It is characterized by co-operative and explicit arrangements with community agencies and personnel.

In actual practice, these patterns of organization are not mutually exclusive. Co-ordination is important in community service by college students because the pattern in any situation tends to be mixed. Here it is necessary to repeat that the majority of colleges participating in this study do not have a co-ordinated plan of student participation in services to the local community.

Basic Elements of an Effective Pattern

As social education, it is preferable for service activities to be provided as group projects and

group activities, with differentiation within them, rather than as individual activities. In fact, the effectiveness of group activities depends on the number and the variety of individual interests, skills, and abilities that can be incorporated into an organized, unified endeavor. Contradictory though it sounds, the greater the social responsibility afforded and accepted, the greater the opportunities and the support for individual growth and development. The need in our time for skill and practice in simple and complex social techniques constitutes a strong and inherent recommendation for group activities and projects.

Three basic elements are involved in the organization of student-service activities: (1) in the college, a group base, such as a class, club, or student group; (2) in the community, a co-operating agency; and (3) between the college and the community, a co-operative plan for carrying on the services. Around these three basic elements a sponsor or a college can elaborate and adapt in terms of the local situation, but the effectiveness of the activity, project, or program is compromised by the absence or the inadequate utilization of any of these three fundamental elements in community-service organization.

Special attention must be given by the college to establishing and maintaining specific co-operative working agreements with commu-

nity agencies. This provides a situation in which mutual responsibilities are understood, functions are clarified, and operational processes are made explicit and manageable. There should be no hesitation about putting such agreements in writing, and they should be subject to periodic review.

College Policy

College policy with reference to community service needs to move from the level of verbalization and general feeling of interest toward the level of responsible acceptance of college-community co-operation in the form of jointly supervised activities and projects.

A community-service program should be carefully articulated within the total program of the college. College policy, if such articulation is to be effective, should go farther than encouragement, and even farther than support. It should provide explicit definition of direction and of scope.

The community expects specific definition of college policy on community service—and quite properly so. The community desires a situation in which responsibility is identified, in which operating procedures are clearly defined with reference to the college, its students, and the community. The community wants to make long-term plans with assurance of consistent relationships with the college and its students. It wants to deal with col-

lege representatives who know what they are trying to do and why. The staff of the college represents the college, as do its students, in the view of the community. As representatives, they must be able to speak clearly and to act decisively.

The college should prepare itself to give thoughtful and specific answers to the following questions:

1. What budget is provided? For what purpose is it to be allocated? Who participates in determining its distribution and use?
2. What staff is provided? Is it trained for its functions and responsibilities?
3. What provisions are made for staff and student time? Is planned time provided for staff and students on bases equivalent to the bases applied with reference to other elements of the program of the college?

These three policy factors are fundamental in educational planning and exert a determining influence on the quality and the extent of the educational experiences provided. It is both illogical and unrealistic to expect to do much of significant merit in community service without adequate provision of budget, staff, and time. The answers given to these questions are indicative of clarity in policy and often also of sincerity of policy. The college engaging in student community service must accept the fact that active, vigorous administrative understanding and support are indispensable.

The policy of the college with

reference to community service may be considered strong and effective when the following statements may be made about its program:

1. Community-service experiences for students are accepted as educational experiences for which the college assumes organizational and supervisory responsibility.

2. Sponsors and supervisors are allowed time to plan and supervise student participation in services to the community.

3. Staff and student machinery and personnel are provided for co-ordination and direction of service activities.

4. Students participating in service activities are working as members of the college, responsible both to the college and to the community.

5. Classroom community projects are directly incorporated into the curriculum.

6. Participation in community service is a part of the scheduled college time of the students involved.

College-Community Relations

Colleges should assume the initiative in sponsoring and conducting local study and investigation designed to make available the findings of careful, complete, and continuous inventory of community needs, resources, facilities, agencies, and organizations, and their personnel. These findings should be made available to the community and utilized in the instructional program of the college.

At the same time, the college should study its entire program in search of ways in which it may develop and utilize community-serv-

ice experiences. The possibilities of extending classroom instruction into the community and of utilizing the problems and processes of everyday living as learning situations need to be carefully explored. Interaction between classrooms and service activities has been found productive of valuable outcomes for students and the community. The same need exists with reference to organized student groups and clubs.

Community contacts and service opportunities have to be developed, and the process, based on demonstrated performance and achievement, is slow. Frequently a fundamental change in educational point of view, purpose, and practice is involved, both in the college and in the community. Building community understanding and acceptance is often a matter of adult education, of community education. In this process, verbalization is a dangerous and obvious refuge. Areas of common understanding and effort must be arrived at through common and mutually supporting experiences.

The implications for college-community relations may be further specified by pointing out that they are at high level when the following conditions apply:

1. The college views itself as a service agency of the community.

2. The college relates its instructional program to life needs and problems as they exist in the community, using as many direct means as possible.

3. The college utilizes community resources, including people, in its instructional program.

4. The college staff belongs to the community and participates in its organizations and activities.

5. The college staff has social skill in working in and with the community (or has set about acquiring it).

6. The community identifies and accepts the college as a community-serving institution.

7. College personnel are accepted and utilized as resource persons in connection with community needs, problems, and plans, as are other qualified citizens.

8. The college and the community, separately or jointly, carry on one or more types of community study and inventory for avowed educational purposes.

9. There is a college-community deliberative or advisory body charged

with responsibility for study and development of co-operative planning and effort in community education.

Conclusion

Various patterns of organization of community-service activities have been described. In order that colleges may be aided in examining and clarifying their situations, the basic elements in an effective pattern of group organization for community service are indicated. Finally, some of the major implications for college policy and college-community relations have been set down for study. The following article will give particular emphasis to administrative and supervisory processes in community service.

A War Souvenir Show

MARION S. CRIST AND
A. G. BREIDENSTINE

As Sue and her friends rose to give a report on the Manus of New Guinea, Sue mentioned that she had read in Margaret Mead's books that the Manus have no really creative art. This was to have been merely another committee's report on a primitive society, but it did not turn out that way, for one of the young women giving the report on the Manus had a brother who had spent some time in New Guinea with the United States Army. Like most G.I.'s, he wanted souvenirs to send home, and his chief item from New Guinea was a statuette about eighteen inches high, an excellent example of New Guinea art—a crudely whittled figure with cat's-eye shells imbedded in the wooden face for the subject's eyes. It was crude in that the proportions were not well defined and the carving

was not smoothed or polished. After that piece of New Guinea art had appeared in actuality to the class, there was added significance when the instructor, Professor Robert B. Patrick, drew on his knowledge acquired during his "residence" in New Guinea to point out much else about New Guinea that never gets into a textbook.

Not only to sociology classes did the collectors' items of many former servicemen, now students in the Hershey Junior College, make their contribution. These world travelers brought in coins, art pieces, books, and much "added comment" to various classes. "When I was in the Philippines, . . ." or "But you'll find that in Germany," or "I'll bring in one of those I picked up," were remarks often heard.

This article describes an activity that was carried on at Hershey Junior College, Pennsylvania, while MARION S. CRIST was a student there and A. G. BREIDENSTINE (now dean of students at Franklin and Marshall College in Lancaster, Pennsylvania), was dean.

After seeing some of the interesting possessions of the students and instructors and knowing that more of similar interest were to be found in the community homes, the students began agitation for providing some opportunity for everyone to share in seeing and hearing about

them. "I've lots of things; I know others have, too. Isn't there some place I could bring them so they could be seen?" The more everyone thought about it, the better the idea became. From then on, parts of several class periods saw the formation of plans for an exhibit, to be called, for lack of a more descriptive term, "A War Souvenir Show."

Plans Afoot!

From the rather indefinite statement, "Let's have a war souvenir show," plans began to spring into action. Necessary to be settled immediately were the details of date and specifications of types of exhibits to include. The dates of Friday, November 22, 1946, and Saturday, November 23, 1946, were chosen. The exhibit was to be open to the public, free of charge, on Friday from 1:00 to 8:00 P.M. and on Saturday, from 10:00 A.M. to 8:00 P.M. It was decided that everyone should be invited to exhibit either materials that they had brought back with them or items that had been sent to them by the men and women of World War II.

Following that decision, the geography and sociology classes designated the following categories in order to have an adequate coverage of possible exhibits: money, handicrafts, costumes, weapons, jewelry (native and that made by servicemen), documents, and photographs.

As the scene of the show, it was agreed to ask for permission to use the Community Social Room, a central location convenient for all persons wishing to come. The permission was granted at once by the Community Building authorities.

Now the real action had to begin, and the committees were named. The following groups were designated: (1) Publicity Committee, (2) Receiving and Arranging Committee, (3) Reception Committee, and (4) Photography Committee.

Upon the suggestion of the Receiving and Arranging Committee, the Publicity Committee informed the public, through the news releases, that Wednesday and Thursday, November 20 and 21, would be the receiving dates for all items for exhibit. The materials were to be received in Room 205 of the College, where they would be properly identified and statements of their "case histories" attached in preparation for exhibition. The final duty of this committee was to supply and arrange the publicity materials, indoors and outdoors, during the run of the show.

The second committee to assume duties was the Receiving and Arranging Committee, which, before their actual work began, did a lot of personal "missionary work" in an effort to secure as many and as varied exhibits as possible. To them was intrusted the safe keeping of all items accepted by the College

for exhibit. Also, one of their responsibilities was calling for and returning such exhibits as could not be brought in personally by the exhibitors. In line with the aim of accomplishing the most with an expenditure of the least time and effort, the committee assigned duty roster to its members. Some were delegated to duty during certain hours to receive and identify items in Room 205; others, to call for and return exhibits to the lenders; still others, actually to set up the exhibit.

To each item was fastened, in the best possible way, a label giving the name of the exhibitor and an explanation of the item. Money, jewelry, insignia, and other valuables were carefully recorded and displayed in such a way as to assure proper return. Glass showcases were secured, in which jewelry and other irreplaceable items were kept. All tables of exhibits were inclosed in a roped-off area to assure a "hands-off" policy. Paintings, pictures, and wall hangings were hung for display, as were also some costumes, flags, and banners. The items were arranged in sections according to the category under which they fell. Such items as tea sets and tablecloths were arranged on tables as they would appear in "real life." Wherever possible, the committee tried to obtain two pieces of each type of money so that both faces could be shown simultaneously and thus eliminate

the tendency of the public to stretch the ropes and turn the items over for complete inspection.

The committee spent Thursday afternoon and evening and Friday morning arranging the items. Owing to the fact that the College did not wish to assume responsibility for exhibits for any longer period of time than necessary, the actual work was crowded into a few hours. With all possibilities planned before the acceptance of the collections, there was no delay in executing the placement of the exhibits.

The committee at work during the hours of the show was the Reception Committee, popularly referred to as "The Guards." Indeed, they were just that, for members of the committee even slept with the show on Thursday and Friday nights to guarantee absolute safety.

This committee also assigned a duty roster for its guides and receptionists. In their charge was the registration desk, where guests were received and registered in the "log." The guides explained the show, giving interesting details behind the possessions and demonstrating and explaining much of the war gear. Most of the committee members used for this purpose were former G.I.'s, explaining either what they or their enemies had used or collected. The Reception Committee also kept records of any comments made and reported the response to the show.

The Photography Committee

was a volunteer committee, the lone member of which decided he could best contribute his efforts through his hobby.

The Show Presented

The first guest at the War Souvenir Show, after looking over all the exhibits, paused at the registration desk to say, "I've seen a good many shows of this sort. This one is unique in that there are few duplications in the exhibits."

The Community Social Room was filled with exhibits, many of them contributed by townspeople who had no direct connection with the College.

One of the most breath-taking displays was a collection of thirty water colors, painted by the art instructor in the public schools. It consisted mainly of landscapes and native-life scenes of the South Pacific, centering chiefly on Australia and the bay region around Hollandia in New Guinea.

Many longing glances were given to the lovely wooden shoes, with gold velvet uppers and picturesque scenes elaborately carved and painted on the "wedgie" heels, which the women of the Philippines wear on "Sunday-go-to-meeting" occasions. Outstanding among the costumes displayed was a black Chinese robe, bought in Shanghai, emblazoned with golden dragons and reputedly worth, in the Chinese currency of today, an easy one million dollars. Also from Shanghai

came a woman's matching ensemble, complete with carrying case, of shoes, fan, and chopsticks. A Chinese bamboo parasol with a gayly printed silk cover, entirely handmade, was much admired.

Brought from spots throughout the China-Burma-India theater were many lengths of materials, among them the costly gold and silver brocades of India; the renowned Japanese white silk with delicate designs woven through it; various "Western" garments made of gay pieces of silk brought from China. From the islands of the Pacific came the interesting banana and palm fibers, patterned into aprons, luncheon sets, purses, etc. From the Philippine Islands there were dinner cloths, handsomely embroidered with fine openwork.

Unusual, too, were the book ends of native wood, carved by a Filipino. One piece showed him seated, smoking his pipe, with his dog at his feet; another showed his wife in the same pose. Each piece took twenty-four days to carve, was artistically done and beautifully polished.

From Japan came tea services and tea-storage vases; pictures "drawn" in wood; toe-strap sandals; ebony laughing Buddhas; a black lacquer chest with mother-of-pearl inlay; a wall hanging of a tiger, so realistically woven in silk that visitors looked carefully to make sure it was not actual tiger skin.

Many folks lingered over the colorful array of sea shells from the South Pacific; among the most unusual were the cat's-eye shells. One of the more valuable rings displayed was a green cat's eye, the size of a quarter.

From the Filipino families of the island of Samar, where each member has some specialized weaving to do, came unusual mats into which the map of the Philippine Islands and the design of the Philippine shield were woven. Also from Samar came the famed bolo knives, most useful utensils for jobs from head-hunting to cutting cane or carving one's meat.

From the other side of the globe came a silver-plated china coffee service for eight, purchased in Fürth, Germany; also a Sicilian native-linen luncheon set, decorated with native-life subjects. A tigereye cameo ring and cameo earrings from Italy received many admiring glances. From Italy, too, probably woven in Venice, appeared a tapestry of classic design in rich blues and gold.

Much curiosity was evidenced over the war gear. From Formosa, picked up after the smoke cleared, came a completely usable Japanese field telephone and a Japanese fox-hole radio. Also picked up on battlefields were many ornate harakiri and samurai swords. A Japanese spy camera which takes a picture the size of a postage stamp

aroused much interest. From Formosa, also, came a battle flag inscribed with Japanese characters.

Among the American gear displayed were a collection of artillery shells; an escape kit of the Army Air Forces; helmets; menus; silk maps of various theaters of operation; and the flag of the "Bonhomme Richard" that flew on V-J Day.

Interesting to many were the official American photographs of spots in Germany and Japan after American aerial "visitations," especially the ones taken after the atom bomb hit Hiroshima. There were some interesting sketches of Sicilian life, drawn by an American navy man stationed in Palermo. Eyebrows were raised at the exhibit of German propaganda materials.

Nazi equipment brought much comment: a German range-finder, mounted on a tripod, weighing at least fifty pounds; German Lugers; a Melior pistol manufactured in Brussels; a "burp" gun, a machine-gun type of weapon used by German motorcycle corpsmen; a scaled model of a German tank; an elaborate small sword worn on a decorative shoulder sling; a German edition of a detailed map of Berlin; alloy pieces, such as ashtrays, emblems, and rings, made by German soldiers; helmets; insignia galore; various weapons with rounds of ammunition. Creating an atmosphere

for this display of German war pieces was an array of Nazi flags.

From many sources came money of the world. A former G.I. who saw the exhibit on Friday evening, enthusiastically brought in his collection of coins from almost every nation of the world for use in the show on the following day. Besides foreign money, there was also the invasion currency issued by the United States, as well as other invasion currencies, particularly those of the Japanese issued for the Philippine Islands.

The range of exhibitors was large. Naturally, many were either students in the College or former students or, in some cases, friends or relatives of Hershey Junior College students. Some of the students brought in exhibits of items collected by their fathers or brothers. Others were teachers, instructors, factory workers, supervisors, journalists, farmers, office workers, mothers, housewives. Indeed, the exhibitors represented the ideal, a complete cross-section of all interests and types.

Passing in Review

A tabulation of the spread of the response to the War Souvenir Show showed that more than fifteen hundred persons visited the show during its "run." Among these were school children; college students, from neighboring colleges as well as from Hershey Junior College; fac-

tory workers, teachers, office workers, businessmen, mothers, fathers. Actually, all types of persons in the community were represented in the registration "log."

From comments dropped by those who saw the show, we find it was "Very interesting," "Quite an education," "Didn't realize before what had been brought back," and "Why didn't we think of this before?" From exhibitors and college students we heard: "A success," "Appreciated the chance to see others' things." One chief factor that helped to give the show such a favorable reaction was the excellent care accorded all exhibits—all had been promptly returned to their owners.

In evaluating the show, the geography and the sociology classes, together with the instructor, agreed that it had been extremely worthwhile, both for the interest shown and for the educational values derived from such a project. All felt, however, that glass showcases are indispensable for exhibiting precious possessions and that a few more such cases would have eased the strain of vigilance. Also, had we considered it sooner, we could have pushed the War Souvenir Show more directly through both the Veterans of Foreign Wars and the American Legion.

Passing in review, to the question, "A war souvenir show?" we would indeed answer, "Yes."

Teaching Humanities at the Junior-College Level

DOROTHY WEIL

THERE is no one infallible way to teach the humanities at the junior-college level. Many experiments are being tried; many patterns are in operation. Each has its advantages and disadvantages.¹ The ultimate success of each depends, I believe, on the understanding, the training, and the ability of the individual teacher presenting the subject.

This is not to say that any person with a particular certificate or credit for certain numbers and types of courses is equipped to teach the humanities. Quite the contrary. The teacher of the subject must have a rich experience with the content in the various fields of the humanities, and a real dedication to the importance of developing, in the student, insight and understanding in those fields.

Function of the Humanities Courses

For the last 150 years the humanities have unsuccessfully attempted to hold a rightful place

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against the ever encroaching practical interests of science and citizenship. The struggle has been a losing battle because neither the humanities teachers nor the trained educators had acquired sufficient perspective on the unique nature of the humanities to understand that the subject has certain indispensable values and techniques for which nothing else can be substituted.²

This fact is particularly important at the junior-college level, where the student, just entering upon adulthood, is becoming competent to receive training in summarizing, synthesizing, and evaluating ideas. We permit him to do this in the abstract fields of mathematics and scientific laws. We insist on his doing it in the practical fields of citizenship, economics, and world affairs. But in our effort to cram him with necessary information in these practical fields, we

¹ *Elementary Courses in the Humanities*. Conference on the Humanities. Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1946. This is a report on a summer workshop which discussed and evaluated most of the current patterns now in operation.

² *The Humanities after the War*. Edited by Norman Foerster. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1944.

deny him gratification in the fundamental needs of his nature for imaginative, emotional, and creative expression. Unless he shows special aptitude in the fields of art, music, or expression, the attitude of our society is not to help him cultivate understanding of these precious heritages, but to suppress and distort all the abortive groping of his unsatisfied nature after beauty and imagination.

The inability of our recent distorted "practical" education to satisfy our human needs for decent emotional expression and sound value judgments is slowly restoring the humanities to the curriculum at the junior-college level, because of the recognition that the "humanizing subjects" have a function to perform which can be achieved by no other subject matter.³ This does not mean that the two other legitimate subject-matter fields—the sciences (in an increasingly scientific era) and the social studies (in a democratic society)—can be neglected. It merely means that for a well-rounded education the student needs the gratifications and satisfactions of the humanities as well, and that we are doing our future

citizens no favor by speeding them ahead in the lines of their vocational interests and special aptitudes at the expense of these satisfactions.

The real problem, at the junior-college level, no longer is to justify the teaching of the humanities to all students but how best to accomplish the instruction. The development of required "survey" courses in the three fields of natural science, the social studies, and the humanities has done much to solve the problems of a crowded curriculum. However, there is still much mental confusion concerning the proper subject matter for a humanities survey and about the nature of its difference from other subject fields.

Evaluation of Humanities' Courses

For purposes of clarifying the problems, a few simple and obvious assumptions must be accepted. (1) The first is that the field of the humanities is the field of the creative arts. (2) The second is that, since the humanities field is enormously vast and enormously specialized, no survey can hope to do more than map out trends and indicate high spots for concentrated attention. (3) The third is that the goal and the primary purpose of any such cursory examination of the fields as the survey affords must concentrate on a few primary objectives and that, for educational purposes, these had better be an understand-

³ See (a) *General Education in a Free Society*. Report of the Harvard Committee on the Objectives of a General Education in a Free Society. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1945; (b) Columbia College, Committee on Plans, *A College Program in Action*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1945.

ing and appreciation of the culture of the student's own time and country.

These few basic assumptions can be used to evaluate many so-called "humanities courses" now being proposed or offered in the colleges.

On the basis of the first assumption—that the field of the humanities is the field of the creative arts—the subject matter of a humanities course must be a study of the creative arts themselves. That is, it must be an examination, under the guidance of those who understand them, of actual examples, however few, of the literature, art, music, and philosophy which are truly great examples of creative art. It means also that courses with titles such as "History of Civilization," which *talk about* great people, works, and movements, instead of dealing primarily with the works themselves, are essentially not courses in humanities but courses in social science.

A third conclusion can be tied to this assumption that the arts are the proper subject matter for a humanities course. It is that, in a cursory introductory course, all these arts cannot receive equal attention. Necessarily, appreciation of music and of the graphic arts is far less simple for the average college student than is literary appreciation, because those arts have special techniques, which have been far less generally experienced than have the techniques of literature. Few

college students play music or draw; all of them express themselves and their ideas in words. Hence most students can achieve more comprehension and emotional gratification through a study of literature than through the other arts, and consequently literary works will probably receive preponderant emphasis in an elementary course in humanities.

The second assumption, stressing the enormous scope of the humanities field, permits us to rule out certain vast areas of the arts which, however interesting and valuable in themselves, we cannot hope to "survey" in a single junior-college course. It immediately cuts down the cultural field to the arts of Western civilization and rules out all the curious phenomena of China, India, Japan, Latin America, and the American Indian, which have had little direct influence on the development of our modern American culture.

The third assumption, which indicates constant emphasis on our modern American culture, does not, as might be supposed from hasty consideration, suggest a course dealing entirely with contemporary examples. Our American culture has roots. In the advanced grades of the elementary school and in the high school, the college student has experienced examples of art, literature, and music written in the last few hundred years. The survey, on the contrary, should be designed to orient him in the entire field of the

humanities. The scattered examples typical of elementary experience should achieve relation to one another and to the whole cultural pattern with which the student is confronted. Because he has now achieved the age where he can make generalizations and see relationships, these should be an integral part of a course on culture. Thus he can come to understand the valuable contributions made by other people and times to our own precious cultural heritage.

Examples of Successful Courses

Assuming that any valid humanities course will deal with consideration of artistic products, for purposes of understanding and appreciation, there are still many patterns of successful courses in operation at the junior-college level. These have usually been designed to meet the special needs and aptitudes of the clientele which the particular institutions serve, and they must, of course, be greatly modified and adapted to serve in other circumstances and conditions.

There is, for example, the famous Stephens College course,⁴ which is built primarily on questions of technique—materials, rhythm, tone, balance, design, etc., as these are to be perceived in the various arts of painting, sculpture, architecture, literature, and music.

⁴ Louise Dudley, and Austen Faricy, *The Humanities*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1940.

Another well-known example of the technique pattern is the present course at the University of Chicago. Although it gives consideration to far more profound and philosophic material than most junior-college courses (a procedure made possible by the fact that it covers four years of intensive work), it also is designed primarily to emphasize considerations of technique and intellectual analysis. The College of the University of Chicago has a highly selected student body; it aims to train for intellectual leadership; and, believing as it does in the importance of mastery of the intellectual disciplines of the liberal arts as a prerequisite for all substantial thinking in advanced fields, it has chosen to stress in its humanities training the intellectual disciplines of incisive thought and expression, much as the aspiring musical artist would practice the techniques of his own art.

Still another pattern for humanities instruction has been adopted in many colleges: the presentation of introductory courses in the various fields, offered by specialists in the several departments, for example, a survey of music, a survey of graphic arts, a survey of philosophy. This pattern has two advantages: (1) It is much simpler to provide competent faculty instruction in a single field than to procure teachers with the enriched and broader training necessary if the subject barriers are broken down, and (2) it is simpler

for the student to devote his attention to one phase of the subject at a time. The disadvantages are equally apparent: the broad relationships between the arts tend to be neglected in this arrangement, as does the emergence of general tendencies typical of the social conditions and the underlying philosophies of particular periods.

That is why, in my opinion, the pattern at present in use in the Chicago Junior College—a consideration of the arts of Western civilization, organized on the basis of their historical development and emphasizing, as the climax of the course, American and contemporary culture—is the most desirable pattern for a public school which admits, without qualification, students with the entire range of abilities among high-school graduates, which limits the course to a single year of instruction, and which is concerned primarily with training competent citizens for a democracy, who will probably have increasing leisure time for aesthetic appreciation. To afford emotional gratification, the course must concern itself with the arts; its organization on the basis of historical development affords enrichment and, at the same time, simplification, so that, for the student unable to grasp the complications of technique, there are still some valuable facts, and trends, and relationships; and, finally, its ultimate purpose must be improved understanding, pleasure, and de-

sirable functioning among the arts of our own time.⁵

In this course the student reads some of the "great books" (not so many and not so thoroughly as he can consider in longer and more selective courses), for, if one is concerned with the historic development of the literary arts, these books are an indispensable part of the instruction. The great books are not too difficult to understand if the student is guided by a leader who has thoroughly assimilated them and is prepared to point out the trends discernible in them and the reasons for their importance and influence. There is a great deal of satisfaction in accomplishment for the student who has made their acquaintance—a satisfaction which has always, except in the last fifty years in America, been an integral part of a college education.

The question of the amount and nature of the instruction in religion and philosophy is far more debatable. If, however, the objective of the course is a study of the roots of the American cultural heritage, then surely a brief sampling of the Old and New Testaments cannot be omitted. If the development of democratic ideas is to be traced, one must find it in the Athens of Pericles, the *Republic* of Plato, and the *Politics* of Aristotle, as well as in the

⁵ For the details of the course, see *Humanities Survey Syllabus*. Prepared by D. Weil and Other Faculty Members of the Chicago City Junior College. Chicago: College Press, 1947.

teachings of Jesus. One must see these teachings reflected in the ideas of Rousseau and Locke before they were expressed by Jefferson, Wilson, and even Wendell Willkie.⁶ If one is considering the arts, one must consider some important aesthetic principles, and here critical works like Aristotle's *Poetics* or Wordsworth's *Preface to the Lyrical Ballads* help students to comprehend the difference between the ordered balance of classicism and the imaginative emotional approach of romanticism, as well as to understand the qualities which make modern music, architecture, or abstract art a truly modern solution to an ever present problem. Finally, there are the ethical and religious problems of life itself, which are also included in a philosophic overview. These are of far greater importance to the young people, who are still trying to find the answers, than they are to older people, who have developed their own philosophy of life as the result of their personal experience. It is helpful to the young college student to become acquainted with the intellectual solutions of some of the world's greatest thinkers, like Augustine, St. Thomas Aquinas, Kant, or William James, or with the equally fundamental though more imaginative treatment of life's problems afforded by Dante or Goethe.

⁶ For a full discussion of the development of the democratic concept, see Samuel Weingarten, "The Concept of Democracy in a Survey Course in the Humanities," *College English*, III (February, 1942), 471-80.

The real difficulty is to keep a reasonable balance between the conflicting interests of such a complex study. The danger, as was mentioned in the Stanford conference, is that, in a study primarily of the fine arts, there may develop too great an intrusion of the overpowering social preoccupations of our time, while the contrary danger is that the teacher, trained through graduate study in the field of the humanities, will strive to produce other specialists in the field instead of seeking the cultural improvement of the general student.

For example, it is pertinent that the college student being introduced to the *Iliad* should learn from it what the epic is like, but contemporary student interest in the *Iliad* can be greatly heightened if the modern student is shown that the epic struggle between the civilizations of the Greeks and the Trojans has its modern counterpart in the current clash of ideologies over the same geographical spot—the Dardanelles. Needless to say, the real difficulty is to secure the teacher who is proficiently trained to teach the liberal arts so that their essential values are stressed yet who is also broadly enough grounded in the social and moral problems of our time to make the liberal arts meaningful in expressing the modern world.

The modern teacher is greatly aided in this effort by the vast number of visual and auditory aids

available in the modern school system. For the study of music and poetry there are excellent recordings by proficient artists. For the visual arts there are charts and slides in architecture and sculpture, and color reproductions in painting. There is the balopticon for snapshots, post cards, and current magazine material. Finally, in a city like Chicago there are available the Oriental Institute, the Art Institute, the occasional dramatic performance, lecture, concert, or unusual film, visits to which can greatly enrich the course. These supplementary procedures, as well as programs prepared and presented by the students themselves in a humanities club or on occasions such as parent-teacher meetings, are often as important educationally as the day-by-day conduct of the class.⁷

There is, however, another important feature of the humanities survey course offered in the Chicago Junior College that deserves attention. The course is intended to be enjoyable, entertaining, and informative, but its successful completion carries with it six hours of college credit. Necessarily, there is work for the student

to do if he is to earn this credit. Besides weekly lectures by the instructor in charge to co-ordinate the discussion assignments, there are definite assignments of reading which the student must have completed before the class discussion, if the discussion is to prove meaningful. Humanities discussion periods are not planned to bore the active-minded with a rehash of material already presented from the lecture platform; they are intended as a thoughtful consideration of a new unit of work which specifically illustrates the general principles enunciated in the lecture. They are supplemented, after discussion, by short weekly quizzes, in preparation for the final examination.

The instructor in such a humanities survey course must gradually but constantly modify the course as new materials and new ideas become available. However, we have the satisfaction of hearing, through reports from other institutions, that the course is adequately and satisfactorily preparing our students to carry on their advanced work in other colleges. In addition, the students themselves tell us how their eyes and ears have been opened to new understanding of their surroundings, whether the new situations are the result of the fortunes of war, which landed them in Egypt and the Persian Gulf Command, or of the fortunes of matrimony, which necessitate building a home.

⁷ For a detailed account of the development of the humanities course in the Chicago Junior College, see Dorothy Weil, "Development of Humanities Survey" and "Techniques in Teaching the Humanities," *Junior College Journal*, XI (September and October, 1940), 16-21, 76-81.

Junior-College Teachers: Degrees and Graduate Residence

LEONARD V. KOOS

WHILE the junior-college movement was still in its infancy and the permanent place of the new institution was problematic, there was little reason for studying the junior-college teacher. When another teacher was to be employed to meet not too well-defined needs, a junior college, by scanning the files of placement services in universities or of teachers' agencies, could pick up an instructor from among persons prepared for something else. The rapid growth of the junior college and the imminence of the junior-college level as a universalized period of schooling have long since discredited this policy of opportunism in recruitment of teachers. Development of the junior college is already far past the point where programs of preparation for junior-college teaching should be operative in many higher institu-

tions and where desirable qualifications, objectively determined, for junior-college instructors should be known to administrators and others responsible for nominating and appointing them.

The current mounting interest in an adequate source of supply of well-prepared junior-college teachers gives timeliness to the report of the writer's study of a large number of such teachers in forty-eight junior colleges. The facts presented concerning these teachers afford at least a partial guide to the planning of programs of preparation in universities; they should be an aid to the administrator in his task of recruiting teachers; and they should afford a background against which present and prospective teachers can judge their own preparation and plans for work in junior colleges.

Scope and Setting of the Inquiry

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THE LINES OF INQUIRY.—The scope of the facts gathered corresponds closely with the lines of inquiry on a three-page form filled out by the teachers. This form asked for information on (1) the

degrees held and (2) the degrees toward which teachers were working at the time of inquiry; (3) the period of undergraduate and graduate residence; (4) undergraduate and graduate major and minor subjects; (5) courses and semester-hours in the field of education; (6) previous educational experience; (7) the courses taught by the teachers during the two semesters of the year of report, with the predominant classification of students in each class; and (8) "other duties." The evidence was gathered during the second semester of the school year of 1940-41, the last prewar year, when school conditions were much more nearly normal than at this writing.

THE INSTITUTIONS AND THE NUMBER OF TEACHERS.—The forty-eight junior colleges represented are all local public institutions, selected for their representativeness and distributed to California and to eight states in the Midwest and the South. In the main, they are in states with the most extensive development of local public junior colleges. Junior colleges of the three main types of organization, namely, separate two-year units, associations, and four-year units are included. The range in size of enrollment in the two junior-college years is from as few as a hundred students to well over three thousand.

In an investigation of the kind reported here, it is important to

have an adequate representation of the faculties included; otherwise, some selective factor may operate to vitiate conclusions. The number of junior-college teachers returning usable schedules for this investigation was 1,458, which is an average of more than 30 per institution. The total number of junior-college teachers in the units was 1,608. Thus, the percentage of usable returns was 90.7, which is to say that evidence is at hand from more than nine out of every ten teachers at the junior-college level in these institutions. For 15 of the 48 units, there were returns for *all* teachers; and, for 24 more, the proportions of returns were above 90 per cent. Except for one of the remaining institutions, the returns ranged between 70 and 90 per cent, and for this institution the percentage was 61.

Because certain values in the study promised to accrue from comparing teachers at the junior-college level with those in high schools, similar information was collected for persons teaching in the last two high-school years in all but five of the forty-eight systems represented by junior colleges. The number of these teachers filling out schedules was 1,089, and the proportion that this number represented of the total numbers of teachers employed in these systems was not far from the proportion of junior-college teachers represented. None of these teachers taught also

at the junior-college level, although many were giving instruction in the first or second high-school years as well as in the third and fourth years.

Highest Degrees

When the study of junior-college teachers was projected, the plan of

of preparation. The other is the extent of preparation as represented by the duration of graduate residence. Both measures were obtainable from the information supplied on the schedule by the teachers.

The facts concerning highest degrees held are presented in Tables 1 and 2. Before commenting on

TABLE 1.—DISTRIBUTION OF JUNIOR-COLLEGE TEACHERS ACCORDING TO HIGHEST DEGREE HELD

<i>Highest Degree</i>	<i>Academic</i>		<i>Special</i>		<i>All</i>	
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>
Without degrees	2	0.2	45	9.1	47	3.3
Bachelor's	149	16.0	232	47.1	381	26.8
Master's	695	74.7	211	42.8	906	63.6
Doctor's	85	9.1	5	1.0	90	6.3
Total	931	100.0	493	100.0	1,424*	100.0

* The small discrepancies between the totals in this and following tables and the total numbers mentioned earlier are explained by the failure of a small number of teachers to answer or to provide usable answers in one or another portion of their schedules.

TABLE 2.—DISTRIBUTION OF HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS ACCORDING TO HIGHEST DEGREE HELD

<i>Highest Degree</i>	<i>Academic</i>		<i>Special</i>		<i>All</i>	
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>
Without degrees	5	0.8	34	8.9	39	3.9
Bachelor's	272	43.6	250	65.4	522	51.9
Master's	344	55.1	95	24.9	439	43.6
Doctor's	3	0.5	3	0.8	6	0.6
Total	624	100.0	382	100.0	1,006*	100.0

obtaining two measures of the total extent of preparation recommended itself. One of these, the highest degree held, is admittedly a rough measure but is, nevertheless, often reflected in formulations of standards and is thereby given significance in considering the adequacy

the proportions disclosed, it is necessary to say a word concerning the terms "academic" and "special" as applied to the teachers. As the reader will know, these terms refer to what are ordinarily designated as teachers of academic and of special subjects, the former term

being applied to the older subjects of English, foreign languages, mathematics, science, and social studies; whereas the term "special" is applied to newer fields, such as technical subjects, home economics, commercial subjects, music, art, and physical education. The teachers were placed in the two groups for study because of the difference in standards for positions—the difference reflecting the fact that the special fields are newer and that programs of graduate study in them have been less well developed than in the older disciplines.

An important detail of procedure followed in the work of tabulation should be mentioned. A teacher was classified as academic if he was teaching one or more courses that could be so classified and all his other teaching was in a special field, the assumption being that the higher standard would be likely to apply in the case of special teachers with assignments in academic subjects. The following of this procedure must have accentuated the differences in the distributions and in other measures of the two groups.

Coming now to the distributions, one may note that, of all junior-college teachers represented, almost two-thirds held the Master's as the highest degree. The proportion with Doctors' degrees is not large, but, when added to the proportion with Masters' brings up the total with either Masters' or Doctors' to well

above two-thirds. Only 3.3 per cent were without degrees, while a full fourth held Bachelors' as their highest degrees.

The difference in distribution for academic and special teachers in the junior colleges is rather striking, bearing out the expectation from the difference in standards of preparation previously mentioned. The proportion of academic teachers with Masters' degrees is almost three-fourths of all, and the combined proportion with Masters' or Doctors' degrees is fully five-sixths of all, whereas the corresponding proportions reported for special teachers is below one-half. While the proportion of academic teachers without degrees is negligible, teachers at this status include 9.1 per cent of the special teachers. The proportion of special teachers with the Bachelor's degree as the highest degree is almost three times that of the academic teachers.

Mention was made above of the practice followed in the work of tabulation of classifying all teachers as academic who taught one or more classes in academic fields whether or not their work was mainly in special subjects. There were 138 such instances in the whole group of 1,424 junior-college teachers represented in Table 1. It may be assumed, as previously implied, that this procedure operated to accentuate the actual differences between academic and special

teachers by draining off from the distribution for special teachers some of those with advanced degrees. The number is proportionately large enough to influence the distributions appreciably, and it seems safe to conclude that well over half the special teachers held the Master's degree as the highest degree.

Comparison of the percentages in Table 2 for the high-school teachers with those just examined shows advantages for the junior-college group. The differences reflect the higher standards formulated for, and applied to, preparation for teaching at the upper of the two levels. At the same time, one may note that the proportion of all these high-school teachers with Masters' degrees is large, exceeding two-fifths, and that for academic high-school teachers it is well over a half of all.

Some interest may attach to the particular degrees represented in the distributions of Tables 1 and 2—Bachelor of Arts, Bachelor of Science, Master of Arts, etc. The distributions have been compiled and are displayed in Table 3. For academic teachers, the predominant Bachelor's degree is the Bachelor of Arts, and the predominant Master's is the Master of Arts, although minorities hold Bachelor of Science and Master of Science degrees. "Other Bachelors'" and "Other Masters'" are infrequent, and the

particular degrees represented are hardly recurrent in the complete distribution. The Doctor's degree most often reported is the Doctor of Philosophy, although a small group reported Doctor of Education and even fewer reported Doctor of Jurisprudence.

TABLE 3.—DISTRIBUTION OF JUNIOR-COLLEGE TEACHERS OF ACADEMIC AND SPECIAL SUBJECTS ACCORDING TO TYPE OF DEGREE HELD AS HIGHEST DEGREE

Highest Degree	Academic Teachers		Special Teachers	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
B.A.	93	62.4	87	37.5
B.S.	44	29.5	90	38.8
Other Bachelors'	12	8.1	55	23.7
Total Bachelors'	149	100.0	232	100.0
M.A.	564	81.2	116	55.0
M.S.	121	17.4	72	34.1
Other Masters' .	10	1.4	23	10.9
Total Masters'	695	100.0	211	100.0
Ph.D.	77	90.6	3	60.0
Other Doctors' .	8	9.4	2	40.0
Total Doctors'	85	100.0	5	100.0

As may be expected, in view of the instructional areas represented, the proportionate distributions to these particular degrees are decidedly different for teachers of special subjects: the percentages of teachers with "Science" in the names, both at the Bachelor's and the Master's level, are much larger than for academic teachers, and the proportions of "Other Bachelors'" and "Other Masters'" are also

larger. These "other" groups include designations in wide variety, such as "Education," "Business" (or "Commerce"), "Music," and the like. To a considerable extent, the designations refer to the area of specialization, whereas this seldom, if ever, occurs in the older subjects. The purpose here is merely to note the differentiation and not to identify or to appraise the motives in higher institutions for making it.

Years of Graduate Residence

Although, as has previously been intimated, the highest degree held gives a clue to the duration of preparation, evidence should be at hand from a more refined measure. Many teachers will have had work beyond the Bachelor's or the Master's degree without its being influential on the distribution of highest degrees held. To add to the understanding yielded by information on degrees held, Table 4 was compiled from evidence supplied by the teachers.

This table displays the distributions of the teachers according to their numbers of years of graduate residence. Compilation was based on reports by the teachers of the numbers of academic years and fractions of years and, where summer sessions were attended, the length of these sessions in weeks. From these reports, a period of graduate residence, to the nearest

tenth of a year, was computed for each teacher. The numbers of teachers represented in Table 4 are not so large as in Tables 1 and 2 because of a somewhat smaller number of usable entries on this portion of the form; directions con-

TABLE 4.—DISTRIBUTION OF JUNIOR-COLLEGE AND HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS ACCORDING TO EXTENT OF GRADUATE RESIDENCE

<i>Years of Graduate Residence</i>	<i>Junior-College Teachers</i>		<i>High-School Teachers</i>	
	<i>Academic</i>	<i>Special</i>	<i>Academic</i>	<i>Special</i>
0.0-0.4	19	50	42	72
0.5-0.9	54	84	109	69
1.0-1.4	254	116	219	72
1.5-1.9	158	57	88	38
2.0-2.4	148	43	56	20
2.5-2.9	68	19	23	3
3.0-3.4	80	14	22	6
3.5-3.9	38	7	7
4.0-4.4	39	2	7	3
4.5-4.9	12	2	2
5.0 and over ..	41	2	3	3
Total	911	396	578	286
First quartile .	1.3	0.8	0.9	0.5
Median	1.9	1.2	1.3	1.0
Third quartile	2.8	1.9	1.8	1.5
Percentage of teachers with less than 1 year	8.0	33.8	26.1	49.3

cerning reporting residence are not so readily understood as directions for reporting degrees. In addition to the distributions, Table 4 contains the median and the first and the third quartile periods of residence and the percentages of teachers with less than a full year of residence.

Considering first the academic teachers in junior colleges, one may note that, while the periods of

graduate residence range widely (actually from none to five or more years), the frequencies pile up in the three intervals from 1.0 to 2.4 years. This piling-up is reflected in the median of 1.9 years and in the range of the middle 50 per cent from 1.3 to 2.8 years. The percentage with less than a year is only 8.0.

The drift of the measures for teachers of special subjects in the junior colleges is toward somewhat lower intervals, with the median at 1.2 and the interquartile range from 0.8 to 1.9. On these measures, special teachers appear to have had typically about a half-year less of graduate residence than the academic teachers. A third (33.8 per cent) of these special teachers reported less than a year of graduate residence. The proportion of special teachers with less than a year of graduate residence is actually larger by 9.1 per cent, as Table 1 shows this proportion of the group without degrees, and they would, therefore, in the main be without graduate residence.

The reader must assume some degree of accentuation of differences between the measures for academic and special teachers in colleges, by the procedure of classifying all teachers as academic who taught one or more academic classes, whether or not their work was mainly in special subjects.

The three predominant intervals

of graduate residence (in Table 4) for high-school teachers of academic subjects are those ranging from 0.5 to 1.9. The median residence is 1.3 years, and the range of the middle 50 per cent is from 0.9 to 1.8. About a fourth of this group of teachers had less than a year of residence. On all these measures, academic high-school teachers approximate the corresponding measures for special junior-college teachers.

The highest frequencies for special high-school teachers are in the three intervals from 0.0 to 1.4. The median for this group is at 1.0, and the range of the middle 50 per cent is from 0.5 to 1.5 years. About half had less than a year of graduate residence.

Consideration and comparison of the measures of the two kinds of evidence for the larger group of junior-college teachers, the academic, prompts speculation on the reason for the fact that the evidence pertaining to duration of residence should typically exceed so greatly the minimum residence required for the typical degree. The typical highest degree held in this group is clearly the Master's degree, for attainment of which the usual requirement is a year of residence beyond the Bachelor's. Here, however, the typical period of graduate residence is far beyond this minimum, falling only slightly short of two years for the median teacher

in this group and rising to 2.8 years for the teacher at the third quartile.

The causes emerging from such speculation include at least three. One of these is the fact, disclosed by experience, that, for various reasons, many students do not complete the requirements for the Master's degree in the minimum period. A second is probably that some who eventually attain the degree may move about from institution to institution before settling down to meet the requirements for the degree. This is especially true for persons securing their degrees by summer attendance only. With the minimum almost universally set at an academic year, any moving from one institution to another stretches the total period of residence beyond a year. The writer sets down still another cause in the fact that many teachers find the work for their Masters' degrees insufficient for their instructional responsibilities and add to their periods of residence after receiving the degrees to compensate for the inadequacies of their preparation. An analogous factor would be the junior-college administrator's policy of recruiting teachers with more than the minimum of preparation. Evidence from other phases of the whole inquiry, not to be reported in this article, supports this belief: pertinent here is the number of different subjects in which some teachers, especially in

small junior colleges, are called on to give instruction.

Effects of Organization

DUAL-LEVEL TEACHING. — Although mention was made above, in describing the setting of this investigation, that local public junior colleges of the three main types of organization, namely, separate two-year units, associations, and four-year junior colleges, are represented, no reference has been made up to this point to the influence of type of organization on the extent of preparation of the teachers. The actual numbers of the different types of organization included in the evidence are as follows: 13 separate two-year units; 25 associations (12 on the 3-2 basis—two-year junior colleges housed with three-year senior high schools—and 13 on the 4-2 basis); and 10 four-year units. The influence is, in the main, through the dual-level teaching assignments in associations and four-year units; that is, assignments for individual teachers at both junior-college and high-school levels. The prevalence of dual-level teaching and assessment of its influence on the extent of preparation has been reported at some length elsewhere¹ by the writer, so that only illustrative presentation seems necessary here.

¹ Leonard V. Koos, *Integrating High School and College: The Six-Four-Four Plan at Work*, chap. vii. New York: Harper & Bros., 1947.

The extent of resort to dual-level teaching assignments in the different types of organization is seen in Table 5. Only 6.5 per cent of all instructors in separate junior colleges were found to be doing dual-level teaching, whereas the proportion in associations was close to two-thirds of all, and in four-year junior colleges almost three-fourths. The proportions assigned to dual-level teaching in special subjects was larger than in academic subjects.

At the moment, it may be enough to explain that the large proportions of junior-college teach-

TABLE 5.—PERCENTAGES OF JUNIOR-COLLEGE INSTRUCTORS TEACHING IN JUNIOR-COLLEGE YEARS ONLY AND IN BOTH JUNIOR-COLLEGE AND HIGH-SCHOOL YEARS*

Type of Organization and Subject Group	Junior-College Years Only	Both Junior-College and High-School Years
Separate two-year:		
Academic (243)†	96.3	3.7
Special (112) ...	87.5	12.5
All (355)	93.5	6.5
Association:		
Academic (378) .	41.8	58.2
Special (191) ...	19.9	80.1
All (569)	34.4	65.6
Four-year:		
Academic (312) .	27.6	72.4
Special (202) ...	21.8	78.2
All (514)	25.3	74.7

* Based on Table 34, in Leonard V. Koos, *op. cit.*, p. 136.

† Numbers of teachers represented.

ers in associations and four-year units who are doing dual-level teaching are, in considerable part, the outcome of policy rather than

sheer expediency. The effect of dual-level teaching on extent of teacher preparation will, however, be summarized. From the original comparisons, not reproduced here, it was concluded that instructors

TABLE 6.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF INSTRUCTORS OF ACADEMIC AND SPECIAL SUBJECTS AT HIGH-SCHOOL LEVEL, IN SYSTEMS OUTSIDE CALIFORNIA WITH ENROLMENTS UNDER 500, ACCORDING TO HIGHEST DEGREES HELD*

Subject Group and Type of Organization	Without Degree	Bachelor's Degree	Master's Degree	Doctor's Degree
Academic teachers:				
Separate two-year (88)† ...	2.3	42.0	54.5	1.1
Association (362)	0.3	31.8	67.1	0.8
Four-year (85)	27.1	71.8	1.2
Special teachers:				
Separate two-year (68)	10.3	61.8	27.9
Association (199)	3.0	59.3	36.7	1.0
Four-year (51)	54.9	43.1	2.0

* Based on Table 38, Leonard V. Koos, *op. cit.*, p. 145.

† Numbers of teachers represented.

teaching at the junior-college level only in all types of organization were roughly on a par, with size of enrolment and region controlled, in the measures of highest degrees held or of years of graduate residence. Important differences were found, however, in favor of associations and four-year units, as compared with systems with separate two-year units, for instructors teaching at the high-school level. These differences are shown in Tables 6 and 7.

The first of these two tables finds declining proportions of teachers

with the Bachelor's as the highest degree as one's attention shifts from separate junior colleges to associations and then to four-year units. This decline is seen for both academic and special teachers but is more pronounced for academic. At the same time, one notes marked and consistent increases in the proportions with the Master's as the

into the effect of type of organization on the extent of preparation of teachers is that, while teachers at the junior-college level in the three patterns are approximately on a par, dual-level assignments in the associations and in four-year units work to raise the level of preparation of teachers at the high-school level, with the four-year units having some advantage over associations in this regard. At the same time, the vertical spread of assignments in dual-level teaching fosters intimate articulation and integration of work at the two levels, since one cannot imagine a more effective means of tie-up than having the same individual teach courses in the same fields at those levels. It is not difficult to understand why, as has previously been intimated, the practice of dual-level assignment often is more the outcome of policy rather than of expedience.

The practice of dual-level teaching may be footnoted by comment on the rather frequent reference to dual-level teachers, in compiling evidence for accreditation of junior colleges, as "part-time" teachers. Dual-level teachers are no less "full-time" teachers than are those who give all their time to instruction in the two junior-college years, and there is no excuse, in view of the inherent advantages here disclosed, of disparaging dual-level teachers by referring to them as "part-time."

TABLE 7.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF INSTRUCTORS OF ACADEMIC AND SPECIAL SUBJECTS AT HIGH-SCHOOL LEVEL, IN SYSTEMS OUTSIDE CALIFORNIA WITH ENROLMENTS UNDER 500, ACCORDING TO AMOUNT OF GRADUATE RESIDENCE*

Subject Group and Type of Organization	Years of Graduate Residence		
	0.0-0.9	1.0-1.9	2.0 or More
Academic teachers:			
Separate two-year (97)†	57.7	36.1	6.2
Association (374)	30.7	46.5	22.7
Four-year (83)	21.7	63.9	14.5
Special teachers:			
Separate two-year (68)	76.5	19.1	4.4
Association (211)	71.1	22.7	6.2
Four-year (51)	68.6	27.5	3.9

* Based on Table 38, Leonard V. Koos, *op. cit.*, p. 148.

† Numbers of teachers represented.

highest degree from the separate units to associations and, again, from associations to four-year junior colleges. One is not surprised, therefore, to find, in Table 7, an analogous tendency toward decrease in the proportions with 0.0-0.9 years of graduate residence and a tendency toward increase in the proportions of instructors with 1.0-1.9 years.

The conclusion from this inquiry

Preparation in Progress

The last kinds of evidence concerning the junior-college teachers included in this investigation to be drawn upon for this article are those supplied in response to questions concerning further degrees toward which the teachers were working at the time of inquiry. This section asked toward what degrees, if any, the teachers were working; in what subjects; in preparation for what kind of work; and the approximate fraction of course work already completed for the degree.

Tabulation of the responses included mainly those made by junior-college teachers holding the Master's as the highest degree, of whom, as may be seen in Table 1, there were 906. The first set of percentages in Table 8 discloses that almost a third of these teachers with Masters' degrees were working toward some other degree, almost all of them toward the Doctor of Philosophy degree. The "other" degrees reported by 4.4 per cent of the teachers were mainly the Doctor of Education, although a few teachers reported working toward Masters' degrees in fields other than those represented by the Masters' already held by them.

Responses of these teachers who reported working toward further degrees to the question of the subjects in which the work was being done are reported in the second set

of percentages in Table 8. More than three-fourths were taking work in fields classifiable as subject matter for teaching, while something more than a fourth were taking work in the field of education. A small proportion (7.1 per cent) reported fields outside those

TABLE 8.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS HOLDING THE MASTER'S AS THE HIGHEST DEGREE, ACCORDING TO FURTHER DEGREES TOWARD WHICH THEY WERE WORKING, FIELDS OF STUDY OF THE FURTHER DEGREES, AND POSITIONS FOR WHICH TEACHERS WERE PREPARING

<i>Degree, Field, and Position</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>
Degree toward which working (906):*	
Ph.D.	26.5
Other	4.4
Total	30.9
Fields of the degree (280):	
Subject matter	78.2
Education	27.5
Other	7.1
Position for which preparing (185):	
Junior-college teaching	43.8
College or university teaching	37.3
Junior-college or teachers'-college teaching	4.3
High-school or junior-college teaching	2.2
High-school teaching	5.4
Administration	6.5
Other	0.5

* Numbers in parentheses are the numbers of responses used as bases in computing percentages.

affording preparation for teaching or for other educational positions. The excess over 100 per cent in the three classifications in this distribution is explained by a small proportion who reported both subject-matter fields and education or some other combination of fields.

The distribution of positions for which the teachers reported they

were taking the additional preparation is presented in the third and the last group of percentages of this table. The largest number are seen to have been taking additional preparation for junior-college teaching—the work in which they were engaged. If to these are added those who reported preparing for junior-college or teachers'-college teaching and high-school or junior-college teaching, the proportion adding to their preparation with junior-college teaching in mind is a full half of all who answered the question. A large minority had in mind shifting to college or university teaching, and small proportions were planning for administration or high-school teaching.

Well over two hundred of the teachers with Masters' degrees who reported that they were working toward other advanced degrees (almost all of them toward Doctors' degrees) indicated, as requested, the "approximate fraction of course work already completed" for these degrees. The fractions, transmuted into percentages, range from less than 10 to 100, or all course requirements. The median percentage was 49, or practically half. The inter-quartile range was from 29 per cent to 81 per cent.

Analogous evidence concerning junior-college teachers with the Bachelor's as the highest degree seeking the Master's degree is not presented here. From the distribu-

tions of these teachers, both academic and special teachers, according to the years of graduate residence (Table 4), together with the medians, quartiles, and percentages with less than one year of residence, the reader may take for granted that most of those without the Master's degree are well on their way toward receiving it. Special inquiry, however, into how many of the 381 with the Bachelor's degree as the highest degree who are proceeding directly toward the doctorate (without first acquiring the Master's degree) found only 11 reporting this more advanced goal. The explanation of this small proportion is found in the fact that the Master's degree has peculiar significance for meeting junior-college standards and usually has a bearing on the salary level.

The Typical Junior-College Teacher

Although appraisal of the junior-college teacher as here depicted is desirable, it would be presumptuous to essay evaluation in more than limited aspects before having at hand evidence along all the lines of inquiry represented in the complete schedule from which this information concerning degrees, periods of graduate residence, dual-level teaching assignments, and further preparation in progress has been drawn. There is some point, however, in identifying the typical jun-

ior-college teacher in the evidence thus far presented, and this much will be done. Only such restricted appraisal is ventured as seems warranted by obvious implication.

1. The typical junior-college teacher of academic subjects in local public junior colleges holds the Master's as the highest degree. The typical teacher of special subjects, in all probability, holds the Master's as the highest degree, but the proportion holding this degree is smaller than for the academic teachers.

2. The particular Master's degree held by the typical teacher is the Master of Arts. This is true of both academic and special teachers, although the Master of Science is more nearly characteristic of the special than of the academic teacher.

3. Described in terms of medians, the typical academic teacher has had about two years of graduate residence and the typical special teacher well over a year. Thus, the period of residence exceeds notably the minimum required for the typical degree.

4. The typical teacher in separate junior colleges gives instruction at the junior-college level only, whereas the typical teacher in associations and in four-year units is

a dual-level teacher. The fact that associations and four-year units together far outnumber separate junior colleges makes the typical junior-college teacher a dual-level teacher.

5. While typical teachers at the junior-college level only in all three types of organization are approximately on a par in matters of degrees held and periods of graduate residence, dual-level teaching assignments in associated and four-year junior colleges realize a better-prepared teacher at the high-school level in these situations, with some superiority in the four-year junior college over the association. Dual-level assignments and, in consequence, association and four-year integration are important factors in raising the level of high-school teacher preparation.

6. The typical junior-college teacher has had graduate residence far in excess of the amount required for the highest degree held. This conclusion and the fact that large proportions of teachers with Masters' degrees reported that they were working toward the Doctors' and other degrees force the inference that current programs for the Master's degree afford inadequate preparation for teaching in the junior college.

Let's Ask Our Counselor!

MILDRED BENNETT BARNARD

THE only limitations to counseling today are those set by our imagination, by our objectivity, or by our resourcefulness. Obviously the scope of counseling has broadened with the unprecedented increase in enrolment in the junior colleges. Owing to their flexibility, junior colleges in America are realizing a development heretofore unimagined. To carry their part of the responsibility of the total educational program, they are increasing in numbers of units, in enrolments, and in curricular offerings. At the beginning of 1947 there were 648 junior colleges in America¹ enrolling about 10 per cent of the nation's students in higher education.

Group education has expanded at each end of the scale (from nurseries and child-care centers to marriage clinics, mothers' clubs, night school classes, and extension courses), and the expansion in higher education has excelled our fondest dreams. Not only have both ends of the scale been ex-

panded, but we are bursting in the middle! The term "education" no longer refers to the training of a select few ranging from six to twenty-two years old; school age has come to include *any* age at which growth and learning can take place.

In such a setting the problems of a counselor require expanded techniques which differ vastly from any preceding experience. Whether the counseling is done with a seventeen- or a forty-year-old, the basic problems seem to follow a more or less general pattern. By way of illustration of the scope of educational counseling in the junior college today, the general pattern is described in the following paragraphs.

Increased Interest

The veteran is becoming increasingly interested in taking advantage of his educational opportunities. Men and women who had felt no particular interest in learning now find it possible to acquire a college education. They are telling

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¹ Winifred R. Long and Shirley Sanders, "Junior College Directory, 1947," *Junior College Journal*, XVII (January, 1947), 199.

the counselors, "I feel the need of an education, and I can't afford to say 'No' to Uncle Sam. If he is willing to spend from two to five thousand dollars on me, I'm going back to school." This interest must be fostered. With the larger universities and colleges full to overflowing, a large part of the burden falls on the junior college.

Initial Screening

If students in our institutions of higher learning are to get the so-called "square deal," so highly prized in the American way of life, there must be careful screening at the point of intake. All entering students should be channeled through competent counselors *before* they reach registration lines. For this initial interview the veteran should provide service separation papers (sometimes most significant data can be obtained from discharge numbers or from the statement of service), former school transcripts, and any other data pertinent to education. Competent counselors, really capable of recognizing mental, emotional or physical maladjustments or the significant symptoms thereof, must be given time to counsel regarding program loads, subject or program advisers, outside employment load, and follow-up-counseling or therapy. Many headaches now being nursed by students, instructors, counselors, Veterans' Administra-

tion representatives, and junior-college administrators could thus have been eliminated.

Legal Counseling

Legal counseling, aside from such matters as adoption, change of name, and the like, is a new facet added with the return of the veteran. In smaller junior colleges the counselor may begin with application for the Certificate of Eligibility and Entitlement and follow through with all the legal procedure. In larger junior colleges legal counseling may be the function of a representative from the Veterans' Administration who has an adjoining or separate office. In either case the first question asked by the veteran usually is concerned with his rights and benefits. The educational counselor is frequently asked to review the veteran's rights, including time allotments under the G.I. bills, subsistence allotments, and means of securing the Certificate of Eligibility and Entitlement. Questions may be asked about insurance, medical service, hospitalization, terminal leave, filing bonus claims (in some states), or about securing a completed copy of USAFI Form 47. Matters involving scholastic averages, required units, change of address, and supervision reports for students attending under Public Law 16 must receive attention. Such questions as the following are often asked of the counselor:

Do you know how I go about starting papers to get my girl friend over from England? We want to get married.

That fungus has started growing in my ear again. What do I do now?

If I want to change schools, do I lose my government money?

The writer would not imply that the educational counselor has reached the point where he "knoweth all things, seeth all things." The implication is simply that finding answers to some of the questions asked daily takes one beyond the confines of the office walls. Such experiences bring the counselor into closer contact with other specialists and thus broaden his own field of knowledge and interest. The days when educational counseling covered school subjects, hobbies, and isolated home problems seem far away, indeed.

Vocational Counseling

It would seem that the junior college is obliged, in its present state of enlargement, to redefine its objectives. The work of the counselor would be infinitely easier if this question could be clearly answered: "Is this institution really a junior college—one which concentrates on the preparation of students for college or university—or is its function to be largely that of providing mass education for a larger percentage of men and women in preparation for work of

a semiprofessional nature?" Since the answer to this question lies with the administrators, what is the responsibility of the counselor?

He needs, first of all, to know occupational trends and opportunities, at least in his locality. He must know which tests are best to help determine aptitudes, interests, and abilities. He may be required to give the tests. He may refer counselees to specialists. When results of tests and interviews are available, he must be able to interpret them. He must know requirements and prerequisites for given courses, not only in his own institution, but in those of higher institutions. He must know how to program students for university parallel, semiprofessional, or terminal courses. He must be able to redirect the interests of those students not able to achieve their original goals. He must know what industry wants by way of preparation for given positions. All this presupposes good rapport with heads of departments, with program or subject advisers, with local high schools, and with business. He must know when to seek the help of a psychologist, a psychiatrist, a mental hygienist, and when to refer students to others. Successful vocational counseling requires the fine distinction between helping others and helping them to crystallize their own thinking, so that they can help themselves.

Educational Counseling

The next group of questions confronting the counselor is of a more familiar nature. The only really new factor in this phase of counseling is its scope. The counselor must be prepared to help with an educational plan which starts at the third-grade level or one which includes an apprenticeship program for a man with one arm who plans to become an expert automobile mechanic. He may counsel a graduate student who wishes some refresher courses, a man with a definitely formulated and clear-cut educational goal, or one who knows only that he wishes more learning.

The greatest need for educational counseling probably manifests itself when the first mid-term marks are given. If adequate counseling service is provided so that all students whose marks are seriously deficient can be interviewed, the number of students dropping classes, withdrawing from school, suffering so-called "nervous breakdowns," or developing neuroses will be decreased amazingly. Regularly scheduled contact during the past semester with students whose scholarship was deficient has thoroughly convinced the writer of the importance to the total program of such counseling. A few short interviews may suffice to set a student right and assure success. Sometimes therapy of a deeper nature

may be required. The number of students salvaged by such counseling, as well as the appreciation expressed by the students, testifies to its dire need.

If probationary or readmitted students should report to a competent and interested counselor at least once every six weeks, their records could be improved. If their readmission is justifiable, then so is their counseling. The very fact that they are expected to report to a counselor has a psychological effect on their efforts. Many adjustments can be made which will help to raise the level of their scholarship and personal security.

All students should be able to make their educational plans well in advance of each semester. This advance planning improves the mental health of the students and relieves the burden of busy program advisers on registration day. Educational counseling will always include change of program, leave of absence, and transfers. In the crowded schools of today, sympathetic understanding is badly needed in these matters.

Personal Counseling

Before the veteran can become greatly engrossed in his educational pursuits, some personal problems arise. He looks to the counselor for help with these also, because he has found a friend, one who is close to the heart of the community and

who, he feels, has an interest in his affairs. Then, because his service training has developed efficiency and a tendency to consolidate efforts, he is overjoyed at the prospect of having his problems settled with dispatch. A problem of paramount significance to him—a problem which must be solved before anything can be done—is that of securing suitable and adequate housing. If he is married, the problem is complex; if he has children, it is compound. He asks for part-time employment to supplement his government subsistence allotment. In the smaller junior college these problems are brought to the counselor. In the larger schools they are the responsibility of other specialists, but the counselor must be familiar with the sources of help. The area of personal counseling has broadened to include social problems, etiquette, marriage, family relationships, health (emotional, mental, and physical), and innumerable problems of personal adjustment.

We believe that counseling, an already dynamic area of American education, will expand its purpose

and greatly aid in making more effectual our educational advancement. The armed forces proved conclusively that sufficient motivation and organization, supplemented with clear-cut presentation and opportunity for application, could overcome most preimposed limitations of age, educational opportunity, race, creed, or color. Returning veterans will expect us to, will help us to, put these educational findings into effective practice. At the very heart of this challenge stands the counselor.

Whatever the question, be it vocational, legal, educational, personal, or social, the counselor must be ready to help.

Education now embraces all who care to learn. The counselor's spheres of influence are limited only by his imagination. The corresponding responsibilities are staggering, sobering, in their magnitude. Counselors are "giving their all" and liking it. Will the rest of education keep abreast of these developments? How will the students from America's six hundred and more junior colleges measure up? "Let's ask our counselor!"

Junior-College World

JESSE P. BOGUE

STATE FUNDS FOR JUNIOR COLLEGES

MICHIGAN Junior Colleges will share in a state fund of \$650,000 appropriated by the latest session of the legislature. It is estimated that approximately \$50 per student in average daily attendance will be paid to the junior colleges for 1947-48. This action scores a big victory for the public junior colleges of Michigan, since the fund represents, it is believed, the first time state funds have been appropriated for this purpose.

TEXAS Junior Colleges will receive \$1,850,000 for the present biennium as compared to an appropriation of \$650,000 for the past biennium. A gain of \$1,200,000 represents a great forward step for Texas junior colleges and is full testimony to the confidence of the people in the work of these institutions. It is estimated that the colleges will receive an average of \$100 per student in average daily attendance. According to a report made by C. C. Colvert, professor and consultant in junior-college education at the University of Texas, the median salary for instructors will be advanced from \$2,399 to \$2,855. Some junior col-

leges have a starting salary of \$3,000 for instructors with a Master's degree. Presidents' salaries range from \$4,000 to \$8,400, and deans' salaries from \$3,000 to \$6,250, according to Dr. Colvert's survey of 17 junior colleges.

The summer conference and workshop at the University of Texas enrolled more than two hundred administrators and teachers. Nineteen instructors and administrators from four states were enrolled in the six weeks' laboratory course.

PERMANENT CAMPUS ACQUIRED

RUTLAND Junior College, Rutland, Vermont, has acquired a permanent campus of more than one hundred acres known as "Clementwood," the beautiful estate of the late Percival W. Clement, former governor of Vermont. The purchase of the campus for the college was recently announced by President Benjamin B. Warfield. The college was organized in 1946 and experienced a most successful first year. The new property lies within the city limits about one mile from the center of the downtown district.

The main building is a handsome

Victorian mansion in excellent condition, and there are five other buildings which have been converted to college uses. The college will have ample room for offices, classrooms, laboratories, seminar and conference rooms, assembly hall, and cafeteria. "Looking out upon the central range of the Green Mountains toward the east and the Taconics toward the west, the site is ideally situated to be the home of a growing college," so states the announcement.

A GIFT TO GREEN MOUNTAIN

GREEN MOUNTAIN Junior College, Poultney, Vermont, has received a gift of \$10,000 from an anonymous donor, President Howard C. Ackley announces. This is the largest single cash gift ever made to the college by a living donor. The college has added to the staff Dr. Elliott Chaffee who will be assistant to the president. Among improvements to be made at the college is the erection of a new library. It is understood that one part of the work of Dr. Chaffee will be to secure sufficient funds for this building.

CONSTRUCTION PROGRAM

NORTHEAST MISSISSIPPI Junior College expected to start a \$400,000 construction program to be completed for the opening of college in 1948. The college will be located at Booneville on a sixty-acre campus

purchased at a cost of \$30,000. The town of Booneville has raised \$80,000 by a bond issue, and the state appropriated \$300,000 for the college at a special 1947 session of the legislature. The new college will become a part of the Mississippi State Plan of Junior Colleges, which now includes eleven district institutions and one local college.

A MESSAGE FROM DR. JAMES M. WOOD

DR. JAMES M. WOOD, now retired president of Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri, sent a telegram to Dr. Rosco C. Ingalls at the annual meeting in St. Louis. Because this telegram strikes so keenly at the unique work of junior colleges, and because it has not been previously published, we take pleasure in making its contents known to the readers of the *Junior College Journal*:

Please convey to the Association my sincere regards and deep regret over not being able to be with you during these sessions. Previous commitments have prevented my coming to this important anniversary meeting. Nothing better illustrates the deep thinking that is current amongst American educators than the elevation of this organization during the past quarter-century. More than any other educational organization, it has broken the hidebound academic tradition in secondary education by directing attention to the student and his problems. It is blazing the trail to a program of real general education for the boys and girls of America.

A NEW STATE ASSOCIATION

CALIFORNIA has formed a new state association according to a report received from Basil H. Peterson, president of the new association. Because Dr. Peterson's announcement may be of vital interest to other states contemplating the same kind of action, it is reported in full herewith:

On March 31, 1947, the California Junior College Federation went out of existence, and a state association was formed. The evolution of area organizations of junior colleges in California has followed the usual pattern of development. Regional associations first sprang into existence, followed by the formation of a rather loosely knit state federation.

For several years junior-college administrators have felt the necessity of forming a strong state association. There has been need for co-operative and united effort in dealing with problems of legislation, intercollegiate activities (including athletics), and affiliations with other levels of public education. As a result, the California State Junior College Association, composed of Northern, Central, and Southern regions, was established.

Purposes.—As specified in the constitution, the State Association has eight purposes:

"1. To develop and promote desirable administrative policies and practices for junior colleges.

"2. To encourage the development of adequate offerings and instructional practices.

"3. To enable junior colleges to assume their rightful position in modern education.

"4. To represent the junior colleges to other organizations and agencies.

"5. To co-operate with all levels of education in California.

"6. To encourage study of junior-college problems.

"7. To collect and disseminate pertinent information among members of the Association.

"8. To promote legislation in the interests of education."

Athletics.—The operation of a program of junior-college athletics in accord with sound principles of education has caused some concern in California. The new State Association constitution provides for a state athletic committee composed of representatives from the three regional associations.

The function of the state athletic committee is to formulate and enforce general rules and regulations governing intercollegiate athletics. The state committee exists not to dictate athletic procedure but merely to establish uniform practices in accordance with broad, accepted policies. Regional associations will continue to have jurisdiction over their athletic programs in accordance with the over-all state policies.

Other intercollegiate activities.—A state intercollegiate committee composed of regional representatives has been established. This committee is empowered to formulate general rules and regulations governing intercollegiate debates, musical contests, oratorical contests, student-government conventions, and other events. The State Association is interested in promoting among junior colleges a strong program of activities as an integral part of educational offerings.

Articulation with other levels of education.—In order that a sound basis of relations may be established with other

levels of public education, the State Association has created a Conference Committee. This Conference Committee meets twice annually with representatives of high schools, state colleges, and the State University to consider and discuss problems of mutual concern.

Legislation.—An important provision of the State Association constitution deals with the formulation of a representative committee on legislation. It is the duty of this committee to study legislation, submit reports, initiate legislation, and represent the Association at legislative hearings.

Looking ahead.—Junior-college education is now the most popular type of higher education in California. During 1946-47, more students were enrolled in the junior colleges of the state than in all public, as well as private, senior colleges and universities combined. Several new junior colleges have recently been established, and more are in the process of being created. Junior-college education will continue to grow in California. With the new State Association and with the co-operative action for which it provides, junior-college education is destined to move forward in California.

HONOR FOR DEAN BOWDEN

DEAN ARTEMESIA BOWDEN, of St. Philip's Junior College, San Antonio, Texas, was honored for "distinguished achievements" by the National Council of Negro Women and chosen for the 1946 honor roll. The citation gratefully acknowledged her lifelong services as an educator and civic leader.

The San Antonio (Texas) *Express* had the following to say in an

editorial appearing at the time Dean Bowden was honored:

Virtually since its founding—by the late Bishop James S. Johnston of the Protestant Episcopal Church's West Texas Diocese—as a church school in 1898, Dean Bowden had taught at St. Philip's. She had seen the institution grow from modest beginnings into an academy and later into a fully accredited junior college: a unit of the city's educational system. She was for many years the academy's principal and later the college's dean, and greatly aided that growth.

The sum total of Dean Bowden's contribution to community-building through her influence on Negro youth during so many years—as teacher and counselor—is beyond appraisal. Moreover, she took the lead in numerous civic enterprises—organizing a unit of the Business and Professional Women's Club, establishing Lindbergh Park, East End Settlement House, the State Training School for Negro Girls at Brady, and many more.

In recognizing so exceptional a record of unselfish service, the Council pays honor where honor is due.

INNOVATING COURSES

New courses of instruction have been offered at a number of junior colleges. A course in Russian culture was given during the past semester at Finch Junior College, New York City, by Madame Nadejona-Krinken. Russian art, literature, music, and philosophy were studied against their historical backgrounds.

Canal Zone Junior College, Balboa Heights, Canal Zone, completed

a successful season in dramatics. Such plays as *Romeo and Juliet*, *Best Foot Forward*, and *Dear Ruth* were presented. The class in dramatics presented the "Junior College Hour" over radio station HOG, using, among other scripts, some which are distributed through the Washington office. "Lost—A Sandwich; Won—A Future," "So You Want to Go to College?" and "What Next?" were given under the general direction of Mr. Subert Turbyfill. A considerable amount of work is offered by the college in the Extension Division.

The department of business administration of Monmouth Junior College, Long Branch, New Jersey, is offering a course in personnel management. The course during the past semester was taught by Mr.

Evan B. Strauss, personnel manager of the Jersey Central Power and Light Company. Mr. Strauss is a graduate of the University of Illinois and has been a teacher in personnel management at Rutgers.

What is described as the first non-tuition, public-school course in aviation on the west coast is being offered at Coalinga Junior College, California. Each student receives ten hours of dual flying and thirty hours of solo flying. Three units of college credit are given for the forty hours of flight-training.

Gunsmith-training, believed to be the first of its kind, is being given at Trinidad Junior College, Colorado. It is understood that students from twenty-two states have registered or made inquiry about the course.

Recent Writings

Judging the New Books

ALGO D. HENDERSON AND DOROTHY HALL, *Antioch College: Its Design for Liberal Education*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1946. Pp. xiv + 280. \$3.00.

BARBARA JONES, *Bennington College: The Development of an Educational Idea*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1946. Pp. xviii + 239. \$2.50.

EVERYONE who is concerned with general education at the post-high-school level will welcome the opportunity to read the two books under review. Antioch College, since 1921, and Bennington College, since 1932, have been experimenting with innovations in liberal education which have been the subject of considerable controversy. The account of the beginning, development, and present status of each program is presented by well-qualified, although biased, authors through these two books.

The presentation of the "Design for Liberal Education" at Antioch is made by the president of the College, Dr. Algo D. Henderson, and by the College editor, Miss Dorothy Hall. Dr. Henderson was successively professor, business manager, and dean of Antioch before becom-

ing its president in 1936. Consequently, the account comes from firsthand observation and close contact with the man who conceived the Antioch plan, Arthur E. Morgan. The co-authors were assisted by a faculty committee in the planning of the book and in the preparation of certain chapters. It is perhaps for this reason that the book rambles, repeats, and lacks logical organization.

The authors, in presenting the story of Antioch, detail its philosophy and the manifestations of that philosophy in the selection and counseling of students, the curriculum, the work-study plan, student government, and in the administrative pattern of the school. Antioch, they point out, when founded in 1853 with Horace Mann as its first president, was regarded as one of the most progressive colleges of its day. Mann's dream that it "should become the cultural center of the two Miami valleys" had difficulty in fulfilment because of the later financial struggles of the school. In 1920 Arthur Morgan was elected president because it was felt he could put the college on its feet financially and because he had new ideas which would make the col-

lege once more a pioneer in education. Morgan wanted to develop a program with two goals: (1) "to prepare men to lead whole lives instead of the fragmentary lives they commonly lived" and (2) to develop "a life purpose and philosophy" (p. 3). It was his hope that these whole men and women could transform life and speed the process of social evolution.

Morgan's plan for attaining these two goals provided for a liberal required-course program, instruction in tool subjects, and direct experience in productive work. It envisaged development on the campus of small industries in which the work experience could be provided. The plan never operated as a whole because of the swing in curriculum toward more traditional courses and because of the failure of the small-industries program. The authors feel that, although the Morgan plan never operated completely, the Antioch of today is attempting to attain the general goals and is substituting a modification of the original program.

After a thorough discussion of the philosophy of the school and its development, the authors take up the details of the operation of the philosophy. First, they tell us of the selection of students, in which the generally accepted tests and interviews are used. An attempt is made to select "students who are above average in health, judgment, and ability to shift gears" (p. 28).

The principal features which draw students to Antioch are the work-study program, the democratic group life of the Antioch community, and the required-course program.

Second, the authors show that the educational philosophy of Antioch, which emphasizes the importance of the *student* and his freedom to develop in his own way, finds expression in the counseling program of the college. Every student has a faculty adviser and a personnel adviser, while new students have hall advisers as well. All counselors are furnished with the usual information on background, results on aptitude and achievement tests and on interest inventories. Test scores are made known to students and interpreted to them. One of the interesting features of the orientation program—the "College Aims Paper," written during the course—is made available to the appropriate counselors. In this paper the student is asked to evaluate himself and his experiences to date and to set forth what he expects college to do for him. He is also asked to state the vocational area of most interest to him, his qualifications for it, and how he can build a satisfactory life around it.

Antioch's philosophy is again evident, through the eyes of the authors, in the development of the "curriculum." The curriculum "is the whole of Antioch: the academic

studies, the work experience, the campus living" (p. 64). The academic studies are divided into two groups: the general required courses and the fields of concentration. The general required courses are of two types: tool and service courses and courses dealing with the underlying concepts of our civilization. The courses follow traditional patterns since there has been little attempt to integrate courses at Antioch. Integration, however, is not overlooked. The examination program aims at it throughout. The examination program requires achievement examinations in five areas: communications, life-science, physical science, humanities, and social science. After a student has passed these examinations, he is eligible to take a terminal integrating examination, which attempts to measure knowledge and how well it can be used. A final evaluation is obtained in the "Senior Paper." The "Senior Paper" includes post-college vocational plans, life-plans, a judgment of the Antioch experience, and constructive criticisms.

The second part of the course of studies, the field of concentration, takes the place of the major. The field is individual to the student at Antioch:

It is composed of academic courses plus work experiences, both of which will give the student a progressive and intensive knowledge in a particular area and some preparation for a career in this area [p. 90].

The field differs for each student and includes his job experience. Individualization requires that the traditional rigidity of academic departments be broken down. Within the field, arrangements can be made whereby a student may pursue an autonomous or individualized course known as a "381" course in any department. The student may choose his own course and do all the work on it, including the making of the syllabus under the guidance of a faculty member. Two research foundations located on the campus tend to encourage independent study and to aid in field programs.

While the selection of students, the counseling program, and the course of study are interesting manifestations of the Antioch philosophy of education, the two most significant features of the college are its co-operative work plan and its program of community living, both of which are outlined in detail by the book. The work plan, which is the most generally known aspect of Antioch's program, contributes to the student's education much more than vocational orientation and the development of skills. It supplies a laboratory in which the student can observe social and political problems as he has never seen them and in a way in which he cannot get from a textbook. It provides for a personal development that comes from contact with the real problems of daily living.

The organization of the work-

study plan requires ninety weeks of employment for every degree candidate. Each student attends one eight-week term and one twelve-week term every year and works during the others. The plan is administered by a personnel department, which secures the jobs, places the students, and counsels students during terms of study. Many jobs on the campus and in the local community are assigned to the first-year students. However, three-quarters of all job assignments for the student body are outside Ohio.

Students are paid the going rate of wages by employers. Some receive detailed job training, while others merely work at the job. Each employer "grades" the student worker, and each student writes a report of his work experience. Both reports become a part of the student's record. The personnel department also evaluates the work experience through an analysis of the reports, occasionally through visits to students on the job, and through discussions with the students.

Antioch recognizes the limitations of the work program and the many serious problems of counseling and of integration with academic work. The faculty feels, however, that the appraisals made by employers, Seniors, and alumni indicate that the co-operative plan is a success.

The second significant aspect of Antioch's program is its community life and government. It views its community government as a "labo-

ratory in democracy" (p. 160). Every student and staff member is a citizen of the Antioch community. Six students and three staff members are elected as a community council, and the council elects a community manager as its paid executive. The council controls the financing of various campus activities and runs these through student-faculty committees. More important than providing services is the opportunity given to students to learn co-operative living, the essentials of good government in their local community, and their duty to the community.

The authors attempt to develop the idea that the administrative pattern extends "the democratic method into the planning of the college program" (p. 205). Students as well as faculty members participate in some phases of policy-making. The evidence indicates that the administration has been successful in its business management as well as in its educational leadership. Administrators of other colleges may do well to investigate Antioch's emphasis which "is not on checks and balances but on growth" (p. 221).

The concluding chapter, "Antioch and the American Scene," returns to a discussion of educational philosophy. It treats questions: "What Is College For?" "Who Should Go to College?" "What Should We Teach?" and "How Shall We Teach?" The last question, con-

cerned with method, introduces an idea worthy of notice at the college level. It seems that there is interest at Antioch in the method of teaching and that at least two methods generally used in the college are effective, namely, the use of experience and of group education.

The authors of *Antioch College* have been well indoctrinated in the philosophy and the spirit of Antioch. Each of the several contributors appears insistent on expressing it in his own way. Antioch, however, has an interesting program which does not need this "overselling." From the innuendos, the reader gets the impression that a considerable number of faculty members exercise the democratic prerogative of forming a strong minority, which sometimes becomes a majority, to block certain educational "progress." At least three phases of Antioch—the work-study plan, the community government plan, and the educational methods used—should be studied by every college. Junior colleges should be particularly interested in Antioch's contribution to "liberal education."

The story of a second experiment in post-high-school education, conducted for the past fifteen years at Bennington College in Vermont, is interestingly told by Barbara Jones, the wife of the second president of Bennington. Mrs. Jones was a member of the first faculty at Bennington and a member of the committee of five which conducted evaluative

surveys of Bennington under the auspices of the Rockefeller and Whitney Foundations.

The reader of *Antioch College* and *Bennington College* is impressed with one point of similarity—their dissatisfaction with traditional college education. In several respects their positive approaches to a new program have something in common. Each recognizes the importance of some form of work experience. Each emphasizes the importance of community living and government in the college. Each attempts to individualize its program to meet student needs. However, in actual operation there appears to be a complete divergence between the two colleges. An analysis of the book *Bennington College* bears out this statement.

Mrs. Jones divides her story of Bennington into four sections. The first deals with the educational ideas or philosophy that guided Bennington. The second part discusses the development of the curriculum. Third, she describes the college community and how it is a part of education. Finally, the non-resident and winter field-work program is outlined. From the contents it is not obvious that the book is more than another description of the program in a small school for girls. Actually it presents, although within a maze of verbiage, an outline of an interesting experiment in general education, with some evidence on outcomes, some keen criti-

cal observations, and a description of the evolution of the original idea to a more workable program.

The book draws on two important studies of Bennington: one made under the direction of Dr. Alvin C. Eurich and the other under Dr. John H. Cornehlson, Jr. At the suggestion of the Foundation financing it, an effort is made to present "‘a readable book on education’ which would interpret the Bennington experience in such a way as to make its conclusions relate to general educational problems now being widely discussed" (p. x).

In the beginnings of Bennington, Mrs. Jones points out, there was a sharp break with tradition. There was no fixed curriculum, no prescribed sequence of studies, and no specified time requirements. The guiding idea was that "education is an individual achievement, an active process which takes place at different rates and in different ways in different students" (p. 3). With a faculty-student ratio of one to six, it was possible to do extensive counseling, to conduct a few organized but flexible classes, to make wide use of individual projects, and to offer many of the features of a tutorial plan. Promotion of a student depended on her counselor, her teachers, and the Personnel Committee. In the Junior Division there was wide latitude on time and individual development. Only students were admitted to the Senior

Division who were capable of doing work equivalent to honors work at other colleges. The author presents the criticisms that were made of the original program of individualized education: that it tended to develop individualists and that it lacked the stimulus of group work. She does not believe the former criticism is valid because of the counseling program and the work experience. The latter had merit, and the objection was later overcome in the development of a program of studies.

Mrs. Jones elaborates the idea that educating the individual extends to other areas than the mind. The whole person must be educated. At Bennington there are no *extra-curriculum* activities; the activities are a part of the total program. The winter work period also contributes to this broad aspect of education, as does the entire counseling program. A final notion is the importance of art education in the program of developing the whole person.

Bennington's theory of how students learn requires definite teaching methods, the author observes. Learning by doing, and the teaching of subjects as tools and backgrounds which students want because they understand the need for them, are basic at Bennington. Active learning on the part of the student and a concrete approach by the instructor are required.

Interest plays an important role, not only in method, but also in curriculum planning — if curriculum

planning is permissible in the Bennington approach. "It is the principal duty of a college to *educate* interests" (p. 34). Thus the college does not abdicate and provide only what students think they want. It develops interests on the part of the students in things in which the college thinks the students should have an interest.

In planning the original flexible curriculum for Bennington, the first president, Dr. Robert D. Leigh, was orthodox, in the mind of the author, in defining the main fields of study, except in including art as one of them. He set up divisions of study rather than departments and arranged to have each student focus her work from the beginning in one of the divisions. Each division could decide the content of its curriculum. It was felt that integration took place within the student and that she would be stimulated to explore other fields than the one of her major interest.

When Bennington opened in 1932, there were no courses offered in advance. After consultation, each girl joined an introductory group in her "trial major" and one or more in other fields. Bennington's experience with complete freedom showed what most school people know: that "recurring interests can be foreseen and planned for in group work" (p. 55). By 1940 Bennington had a fairly stable curriculum, with each student taking four courses or quar-

ters each year. In the Junior Division the "trial major" was abandoned, and emphasis was placed on exploration and diagnosis. This shift should be of special interest to the junior-college administrator who has to struggle to keep students from too great specialization in the junior college. At present the Bennington student does not even select a major until she is admitted to the Senior Division.

The evaluative study indicated that Bennington Sophomores were superior in achievement on the Co-operative General Culture Test. An analysis showed them below the medians on American history and economics. However, the faculty felt that, in spite of achievement in the areas of knowledge, certain changes were necessary.

Mrs. Jones discusses at length the critical analysis of the curriculum. The major criticism was of the divisional organization, which interfered with general education. It provided programs too narrow for general education and too broad to insist on competence in a field. A second criticism was the need for joint planning in order to provide for areas of concern to all students.

The reconstructed curriculum, it is pointed out, recognizes areas of "basic studies" and "special studies" and the postponement of the major to the Senior Division. Counseling procedures now provide specially skilled counselors in the Jun-

ior Division, and tutors for Senior Division counseling. In her discussion of the basic studies, Mrs. Jones reaches new heights in rationalization of the shift in Bennington's point of view in showing it is no fundamental change. She emphatically tells how it will not be any of the things Bennington stands out against. However, the description of the program shows that, except for its emphasis on art, it does not vary greatly from other programs of this type. Method of presentation and the timing of the "courses" may differ.

The last two sections of the book deal with two subjects that involve interesting ideas that are not unique. The first is the importance of the community in the educational program. This is adequately discussed in the Antioch plan. Bennington's idea is similar, but it is executed to meet its own needs. Lastly, the subject of nonresident work is treated. Again, the idea is not new, and it has been well worked out elsewhere. Bennington has an adaptation worked out which is worthy of comment. It plans to get its students to the centers of activity during midwinter by having a long nonresident period from Christmas to the end of March. Originally the idea was

to give a vacation to be used for serious purposes (away from the rigors of a Vermont winter). Now it is a regular work period, and the college assists in finding jobs. It is not so well developed and integrated with the curriculum as is the program at Antioch, but it seems to serve a purpose.

The two books reviewed here are worthy of serious but critical reading by everyone concerned with the philosophy of post-high-school education and with the manner in which it is put into operation. The treatment of the place of general education, of work experience, and of community living are significant. Junior colleges should especially investigate the two latter ideas, since they have done little about them. The reader cannot help wishing that the jargon, the attack, and the unconscious disregard for much that is good in traditional schools—all of which are typical of so many apostles of a "new education"—might have been eliminated from both books. He also might wish for a more logical and factual presentation. But the volumes, as they stand, tell interesting stories for the educator and for the layman.

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Selected References

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BOLTON, FREDERICK E. "Some Limitations of the 6-4-4 Plan of School Organization," *School and Society*, LXV (June 7, 1947), 417-20.

"In the writer's judgment the junior college should be a branch of higher education, organized and administered by the same board of higher education as the state university, the state college, and the state teachers' colleges. The local community should contribute to the support of the college for the privilege of having a higher educational institution where students can reduce expenses." Dr. Bolton makes this statement at the end of his discussion of junior colleges and the 6-4-4 plan. His arguments dwell on four points: the junior colleges' dependence for existence on the offering of parallel university curriculums, the false logic of patterning the American secondary-school system after the European system, the inadaptability of the 6-4-4 plan to the mental and physical maturation of youth, and the difficulty of financing and supporting the public junior college when it is considered a part of the secondary-school system.

With regard to the first point, the dependence of the junior college on university curriculums, the author takes the stand: "Terminal vocational courses received little consideration until recently. In fact, no junior college could have maintained its existence that did not assure students that all courses completed in the junior college would be accepted by higher institutions, especially the state universities." It is granted that the drawing power of junior colleges will be increased by offering terminal courses. "But until technical trade and industrial courses have been longer established as terminal courses in the junior col-

leges, it will be impossible to assess their drawing power. Even in large urban centers not more than half of those continuing after the twelfth grade will attend the junior college. Many will prefer to go to the state university, a church college, or some institution with a great reputation, like Harvard, Yale, Vassar, or Bryn Mawr. . . . Every secondary school should afford an opportunity for pupils to graduate at the end of the twelfth year. That is the time at present when there is a reshuffling in all the institutions of the country."

On the second point, the false logic of patterning our schools on the European system, Bolton states: "In reality, the movement to establish the junior college as an integral part of the secondary school is not a new movement. . . . It is an attempt to remodel our American secondary education according to the universal European pattern, centuries old." The traditional European system served a stratified social order. Since the American society is not stratified, patterning the secondary schools after those of Europe is illogical.

Several arguments dealing with the third issue, the inadaptability of the 6-4-4 plan to mental and physical maturation, are presented. With reference to the junior high school students, it is pointed out: "Likewise when they reach the tenth grade, they are adolescents and should be grouped with adolescents, not with children. Ninth-graders are not quite mature enough for the wider liberties and the new regime of a real senior high school. Most ninth-grade boys are too small and too immature for the high-school baseball, football, and other strenuous sports. . . . The mortality in ninth-grade subjects as taught in the ordinary high school is appalling."

Applying the maturity argument to the

upper unit, Bolton says: "If Grades XI, XII, XIII, and XIV are grouped together, Grades XI and XII probably will include at least 60 per cent of the total, that is, juveniles will predominate." This would take away from the "grown-upness" and dignity of college life. "We should expect that junior-college students would not want to have the immature eleventh-graders in the same organization as those in the thirteenth and fourteenth grades. The biological and social status are vastly different." Recognition of this fact is maintained to be the basis for the traditional demand on the part of accreditation associations that high-school and college students be separated. Furthermore, "if the school is organized on the 6-4-4 plan with all ages from fifteen or sixteen up to nineteen or twenty in the same group and with no break to enable youth to see new environment, new acquaintances, new studies, new methods, new teachers, something is lost which cannot be replaced."

The fourth point posed is that the 6-4-4 plan will succeed best in large and financially able school districts. "Difficulties have been encountered regarding the sources of revenues for support of junior colleges regarded as an integral part of a public secondary school. . . . Many state laws specify that the public schools include the elementary schools and high schools, but none specifically include junior colleges. . . . Of course, statutes may be changed, but generally it is not easy."

"If junior colleges are purely local institutions and are designated merely as thirteenth and fourteenth grades, they will be inadequately housed, with inferior libraries, insufficient laboratory equipment, with underpaid teaching staffs who do not measure up to college standards."

"Critical Problems in the Junior College," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXII (March, 1947), 137-77.

A symposium dealing with the problems of the junior college takes up the greater portion of the March, 1947, issue of this journal. Frank B. Lindsay, assistant superin-

tendent of public instruction of California, begins the symposium with an editorial, "California Junior Colleges: Past and Present." He presents a brief historical sketch of thirty years of public junior colleges in California to define areas in which mistakes have been made and improvement is needed. He touches on district organization, financing and objectives. Two main charges are assigned the junior college: (1) to identify students capable of professional training and to encourage them to go on; (2) to stand fast as a "moral bulwark in its community."

"Some Critical Problems in Junior Colleges," an article written by Jesse P. Bogue, executive secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges, stresses the problems resulting from congestion and overcrowding of students. "Enrolments must be curtailed until ample funds are forthcoming to enlarge plants, provide facilities, employ teachers and staff officers, and pay them adequate salaries." The states of California, Mississippi, Texas, Washington, and, for their more recent action, Maryland and Alabama, are commended for their efforts to meet these problems through state-wide action.

John A. Howard, Jr., of the Division of Readjustment Education in California, also dwells on the influx of students in his article, "Veteran Education in Junior Colleges." The extent to which the junior colleges are meeting the challenge from an instructional point of view is held to be one of the most pressing of all questions. "While the terminal aspect of junior-college education has long been one of the functions of such institutions, it has probably been the most neglected—with the result that private commercial institutions have definitely assumed the leadership in this field."

"High School and Junior-College Relationships" are discussed by B. H. Peterson, director of Glendale College. Maintaining that there must be a close working relationship between the high schools and junior colleges in order to serve the needs of all youth, Peterson points out that the four-year junior college embracing Grades XI-XIV has definite advantages for integrating the high-school and junior-college years.

Realistically, however, it is shown that "the majority of junior colleges are not of this type. To reorganize the schools of California into 6-4-4 units would require a major operation, which will not be accomplished until a solution is found to the problems of redistricting that are now causing difficulty." Obstacles to co-ordination and articulation of high school and junior-college programs are summarized: in most cases, high schools and junior colleges have separate and distinct administrative control; curricular offerings are planned independently; guidance is not continuous through the high-school and junior-college years; and instructors and administrators at either level are not thoroughly informed of the programs which the other is offering. A firm structure of co-operative endeavor is needed to overcome these obstacles.

By presenting some of the items of information sought from him by interested patrons, John H. McCoy, director of the Santa Ana Junior College, reviews problems in "Public Relations." The chief difficulties encountered are helping the faculties become conscious of their role in the public-relations program of the college, becoming acquainted with the best literature in the field, and organizing the material and putting the personnel to work.

"General Education in Junior Colleges" by Grace V. Bird, director of the Bakersfield Junior College, is a report of the General Education Committee of the California Junior College Federation. Before presenting its recommendations, the committee lists several assumptions that were made with respect to the nature of general education. These include: "(1) We assume that general education is concerned with the development of those powers and those knowledges and those attitudes which should be possessed by all of the citizenry, regardless of the particular occupational groups to which each belongs. (2) We assume that these basic powers, knowledges, and attitudes are so unchallengeable in validity and so vital in character that we may insist that everyone shall have the chance to acquire them in a state-wide common minimum program of schooling up through the fourteenth grade."

The committee recommends that the state superintendent be requested to appoint a committee of educators to study the problem of insuring an adequate program of general education in the junior colleges. A suggested core curriculum for general education in junior-college programs is given as a supplementary proposal.

John L. Lounsbury, president of the San Bernardino Valley College, contributes the article "Development of Technical-vocational Education" to the symposium. He believes that the junior colleges have a most strategic position for the future development of vocational-technical work. A well-rounded program of technical-vocational training must be developed to include three areas of work: "(1) The skills necessary to master the job for which the student's specialization fits him. . . . (2) The knowledge and appreciation of the problems involved in his relationship with his fellow-workers. . . . (3) The knowledge and appreciation of the best means of making individual adjustments to the social and economic conditions that exist."

"Accrediting Curricula of Technical-Institute Type," by Nicholas Ricciardi, president of Sacramento College, deals with the desirability of a program of accreditation. The author asserts that such a program, if it is based on a sound body of principles and an acceptable procedure for visitation, and if it is given a status which has practical value in bringing recognition to the institution and in stimulating the building of more adequate curriculums of technical-institute types, can help junior colleges meet more effectively the needs of the 75 per cent of students interested in gainful employment in occupations requiring two years of post-high-school education. "The California Junior College Federation, with the encouragement of the American Association of Junior Colleges, should take steps to make accreditation a practical and stimulating service available to all junior colleges."

Rosco C. Ingalls, retiring president of the American Association of Junior Colleges, concludes the symposium with the article, "The American Association of Junior Colleges." In it he offers a brief exposition of

the historical development of the Association and the recent preparations that it has made to meet the new tasks now defined.

CRULL, HOWARD D. "Community Colleges—Equal Opportunity for All Citizens," *Michigan Education Journal*, XXIV (December, 1946), 281.

Reviews the need for expansion of educational opportunity in Michigan. "We can all agree that education goes forward in public schools solely to make the individual socially efficient. Social efficiency depends on continuous growth of the individual: physically, mentally, and morally. As school men, ours is the responsibility for a program of education permitting and stimulating such growth." The figures pertaining to the growth of junior colleges tend to indicate one conclusion: the junior college not only is here to stay but is today the fastest growing segment in America's pattern of education.

One of the factors operating to limit the educational opportunity of youth is the distance that must be traveled to attend institutions which provide post-high-school education. When listed by counties, the percentages of students, eighteen through twenty years of age, enrolled in the seven state-supported colleges and universities in Michigan present evidence suggesting that distance from home to college is more important in the matter of attendance than is the ability of the student to finance his education. Another factor influencing attendance of young people desiring education beyond the high school is the problem of orientation and adjustment. "According to the office of the state superintendent of public instruction, the highest mortality rate in advanced education, among four-year colleges at this time, is during the Freshman and Sophomore years. . . . Can such a loss be lessened by better adjustments of students attending colleges in their own communities?"

To help the junior colleges overcome such difficulties to expansion of educational opportunity, it is recommended that some of the funds made available for higher education in the state should be on a local level. "In other words, the junior college, Grades

XIII and XIV, or a community college, just as you wish to call it, should receive financial consideration from the state to carry on a program of college work in the natural school communities. By virtue of this change, a more adequate program could be developed, especially in terminal education." Of great consequence also would be the service that would be rendered by the community colleges in the area of adult education. Today education is facing a new era. Educational requirements are increasing. These requirements should be met on a local level and be supported by the state.

HAVIGHURST, ROBERT J., and MCGUIRE, J. CARSON. "Whither High School and College?" *School Review*, LV (February, 1947), 64-72.

Discusses the forces at work in the United States which within the next two decades may bring about significant changes in both the structure and the function of secondary education. Within the area of social and technological development, these include the increase in life expectancy, a predicted early return to a situation characterized by a dearth of job opportunities for youth in their teens, the tendency to three starting points corresponding to "time-clock," "check-list," and "executive" personnel in the beginning of careers in commerce and industry, and the development of technician or semiprofessional positions in many areas of work. To present evidence that these forces are already exerting an influence on the social conditions of the nation, the authors refer to recent writings and investigations into the participation of older people in the economy, reports that student applications for part-time work are not meeting with success, and studies of the ratios of technician and assistants to professional personnel in the field of engineering.

"These developments, taken together with the upgrading of the age of the working population as a whole, point to the necessity for reorganization of educational programs to take care of those who will seek additional schooling. The press for more education and a different kind of education will come both from those who are waiting to find places in

adult society and from those who are looking for higher positions or are attempting to hold the status gained by their parents." These forces will be accentuated because the pressure put on institutions of higher education by the veterans will not abate for some time and because increasing percentages of high-school graduates are demanding continued education. Some states, such as Pennsylvania, have set up co-operative programs which give the first year of collegiate training in centers regionally distributed throughout the state. "If the trends continue, such developments may well be a first step toward state grants to the support of public junior colleges, many of which will be integrated into existing school systems." In spite of such attempts to meet the needs of the oncoming high-school graduates, a number of educators are becoming increasingly concerned with the types of higher training that will be available to prospective students. The young high-school graduate threatens to become our "forgotten man."

These trends and influences are lending an impetus to the development of junior colleges, which are already undergoing great expansion. A higher secondary school, adapted in the light of a greater knowledge of the realities of the economic and social situation, forecasts a potentially valuable agency for inducting many of our young people into adult society. Reference is made to a statement by Charles M. Armstrong, of the New York State Department of Education, that high schools are likely to find that specialized terminal education will undergo a shift to higher grades and that the high-school function will be to serve two main groups: those students who plan to continue their education and those who plan to take unskilled or semiskilled jobs. "If this forecast carries merit, the high school of the future may regain its true function of supplying a general education, freed of the burden of occupational specialization."

The establishment of two levels of public secondary education, high school and junior college, requires financial support. Some states are moving toward the establishment of the junior or community college as an integral

part of the local school system, by setting up legislation or incentives for district reorganization. In the case of the state of Washington, the report of the survey made by George D. Strayer and his associates offers two principles for locating junior colleges: (1) Opportunities should be available to all youth within daily travel distance of their homes. (2) The area served should have sufficient secondary-school population to maintain a unit of economical size.

Continuing their exposition of the influences affecting the junior-college movement, the authors refer to the increasing recognition that the years of late adolescence, ages sixteen to twenty, constitute a coherent social group. There is a difference in the developmental tasks of early adolescence, the twelve-to sixteen-year-old age group. The 6-4-4 plan is given as the scheme of grade organization which best fits the developmental age groups of youth.

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BOULEVARD
CHICAGO

A Bureau of Placement which limits its work to the university and college field. It is affiliated with the Fisk Teachers Agency of Chicago, whose work covers all the educational fields. Both organizations assist in the appointment of administrators as well as of teachers.

Our service is nation wide